The Nation.

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The Week.

Both houses of Congress have now passed the bill, suggested by Attorney-General Knox, for expediting prosecutions in the United States Courts under the Interstate Commerce Act or the Sherman anti-Trust law. No objection was made or debate had in either Senate or House. There was really no room for any. Whatever else may be said about bills against Trusts, this at least must be agreed to by everybody, that it is of the highest importance to find out what power we have under existing law. Yet for that we were in a fair way to have to wait two years more. It has been clearly understood, for example, that the Northern Securities case could not, in the ordinary course, be so much as heard by the Supreme Court before 1904. Under the bill now passed we shall get a decision very much earlier. That is so plainly and so eminently desirable that even contentious Congressmen could discover no reason for opposing or delaying the Attorney-General's measure.

It will be time enough to discuss seriously the terms of the Littlefield Anti-Trust bill when it is taken seriously by the Senate. At present, the general understanding is that it will not even be reported to that body. This confident expectation accounted, in part, for the passing of the bill, on Saturday, by a unanimous House. Any measure which gets by the Representatives in that way is, presumptively, either a bill for Buncombe or one that is marked for early death in the Senate. As it passed, the Littlefield bill was shorn of some of the features which, in its original form, were most entitled to be called drastic, and it cannot now be regarded as an attempt at revolutionary lawmaking. Even so, however, the Senate will none of it. The anti-Trust programme for the session is not expected to go beyond the bill expediting anti-monopoly cases in the United States courts, the bill forbidding railway rebates, under more severe penalties, and the amendment to the act creating the new Department of Commerce in such a way as to give it a Bureau of Corporations, with a certain power to compel publicity. After this pending legislation is given its final shape, we shall be able to measure accurately the work of Congress in carrying out the President's recommendations against Trusts.

Though the Littlefield bill passed with unanimity, it passed without a particle of enthusiasm. The debate was listless; the voting mechanical; the result cut and dried. Why was this? Partly because the whole thing was an insincere shouldering of a disagreeable subject upon the Senate. Even more, we think, because everybody was conscious that a roundabout and uncertain attack was being made on the evils of monopoly, while a direct and damaging assault, which might have been made, was neglected. Publicity and restraints on interstate commerce are but remote and doubtful remedies, compared with the immediate cutting away of the protective duties which serve as a bulwark to so many forms of monopoly. Yet these a Republican House dares not touch. It was a Republican member, however, Mr. J. B. Perkins of the Rochester district, who a few days before uttered the plainest warnings to his associates. He said:

"The return of the Democratic party to power would be a misfortune, and I should not fear it unless it came by reason of Republican mistakes. If our friends on the other side succeed again, it will not be as the result of Democratic wisdom, but of Republican folly. The people are paying more for coal than they like to, and they find a duty on it that we will not repeal. The duty on hides and lumber injures important interests, and we keep it in force. That is not the way to get votes. We are kept in because people are afraid of what the Democrats will do, but we cannot count on this for ever. If we do not change some things in our tariff system, sooner or later others will be elected who will do it for us."

The Senate debate on the Statehood bill on Thursday brought out the very interesting, but not wholly unfamiliar, fact that the Mormon Church in Utah controls absolutely the political activities and destinies of its members; no Mormon runs for a high office "without the consent of the first presidency," said Mr. Dubois. Mr. Hale expressed a fitting horror at the exposure, asserting that the Mormon Church exercised "the power to bind and to loose" in a manner contrary to the spirit of American institutions. In this indignation we share unreservedly, but we wish more of it. We wish to see Senator Hale or Senator Dubois take up the maleficent effect of such a religious institution as Platt's Sunday-school. Does any one suppose that a prominent Republican in the States of New York and Pennsylvania, for example, is less dependent upon the machine than a Mormon candidate for office upon his church? Does anybody suppose that the power of a boss "to bind and to loose" is smaller than that of the Mormon First President? Why should anybody who has the future of American institutions at heart assert that the power of Brigham Young's successors is un-American, but omit to say that the preponderance of Platt and Quay is equally un-American? Is it expedient, gentlemen of the Senate, to show too great zeal in the search for Mormon motes while your honorable body is cumbered with such Gentile beams as a Platt and a Quay, and while an Addicks is forcing your doors?

The Aldrich bill to extend the facilities for Government deposits in the national banks, introduced on Monday in the Senate, is an outcome, partly of the discussion which followed Secretary Shaw's action last September, but, more immediately, of the Chamber of Commerce resolutions of last December. Under existing statutes, receipts from internal revenue may, as they are collected, be deposited with the national banks; such deposits drawing no interest, but being secured by a first lien on the assets of the bank, and by pledge of United States Government bonds, to an equivalent face value, in the hands of the Treasury. Secretary Shaw extended the list of acceptable collateral to certain State and municipal securities; but the legal authority for this move was seriously in doubt, and the Treasury has already substantially receded from its position. The Aldrich bill creates the authority which was lacking last September, and in other ways enlarges the Treasury's power to keep its surplus in the money market. Briefly summed up, the bill provides that the Secretary may deposit in bank public moneys received, not merely from internal revenue, but from all sources; that he shall exact from the depositories an interest rate of at least 1½ per cent., and that he may accept as collateral, not only Government bonds, but State and municipal bonds of a prescribed standing, and first-mortgage bonds of railways whose stock has regularly paid 4 per cent. for the ten preceding years. These provisions, in connection with the Government's first lien on the assets of failed banks, constitute an ample safeguard, and would place the public deposit matter as nearly in a rational position as it can occupy under the present Sub-Treasury system. This measure goes a little further than the recommendations of the Chamber of Commerce, but not so far as those of Secretary Shaw in his recent annual report. It undertakes to correct a situation which was always absurd and was fast growing intolerable.

The announcement that the President will veto any bills restoring to the army dismissed officers, and then putting them on the retired list, is very gratifying. This process not only amounts to the granting of a pardon and a very liberal pension, but also gives the beneficiary the right to wear the uniform which he once disgraced. If the applicant has not

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overcome the fault which led to his downfall, he certainly is not entitled to restoration. If, on the other hand, he has become an industrious member of society, he is certainly not in need of Government bounty. This abuse of the retired list has been very frequent in past years, despite the protests of army officers who have rightly insisted that the retired list should be kept as a roll of honor for deserving veterans. It is bad enough, they say, that men like "Hell-Roaring" Jake Smith and Eagan of "embalmed beef" fame should be put upon it by way of punishment for their misdeeds. The retired list was never intended to be a refuge for the offenders of the army. The service will therefore be delighted with the President's policy, which is also that of the War Department. It would be well if Mr. Roosevelt could take an equally severe attitude towards private pension bills, which are generally in the interest of persons wholly unworthy of Government aid.

It is impossible to believe that the country will accept as conclusive either of the reports prepared by members of the House Naval Committee on the submarine-boat bribery charges. The committee itself is hopelessly divided. According to the dispatches, the "battleship-trust" members insist on vindication for Lessler as well as for everybody else except Doblin, while the "Holland boat crowd" is for a report declaring that Lessler's charges are not sustained. The "Holland boat crowd," it is intimated, is angry with Lessler because the scandal following his disclosures has defeated an appropriation, at this session, for submarine vessels. The country cares very little about the resentment of submarine-boat advocates or the gratitude of those who favor battleships. What it does demand, however, is a thorough probing of the naval-bill scandal, and it is perfectly evident that nothing of the sort has yet been accomplished, or even attempted.

The House Committee on Naval Affairs, after passing over the Doblin case so hurriedly and leniently, voted in favor of a large addition to the navy. The Holland Company failed to get any further orders, but the Committee decided upon three more battleships, one first-class cruiser, and two steel training ships and one wooden one. It also accepted the proposal to double the number of cadets at Annapolis, and to add sixty-five officers and eight hundred men to the Marine Corps. This is undoubtedly a larger programme than would have been agreed upon had there been no Venezuelan imbroglio, which, by the advocates of a large navy, has been skilfully used to inflame popular passion and play upon a misguided patriotism. If there is one lesson to be learned from the Venezuelan complications it is how quickly and heavily a nation may pay for having a bumptious navy and trying its guns on its debtors. Germany's little bill for this magnificent triumph includes not only the actual expenses, and loss of business with North and South America, but, above all, the feeling of uneasiness and dislike which her methods have aroused among the American people. In our estimation, every ship Congress now adds to our navy is a menace to our peace and a step backward from the enlightened and Christian position which this unarmed nation occupied for a century.

A year or so ago the pesky Anti-Imperialists were the ones who were keeping up the war in the Philippines by their refusal to approve of our policy in the archipelago. This, as we all remember, was the blackest treason. But what shall be said of a Congress which is deliberately inciting the Filipinos to revolt by its refusal to take any steps to relieve the terrible suffering reported by our own officials? Nothing else can be got out of Gov. Taft's fresh appeal for aid which was given out in Washington on Monday. "Failure to furnish relief at this session of Congress," he says, "would create consternation throughout the islands. . . . The political situation would become *more difficult*." Could the Governor of unhappy and unwilling subjects use plainer language? He reports a total net loss to the insular treasury from the depreciation of silver of $1,277,941—enough to keep many a starving Filipino alive. Among other misfortunes, Mr. Taft reports "immense losses to merchants who have sold on credit," and the continuance of destitution due to the plague, cholera, and rinderpest. Surely this is a tale to move the heart of any humane man.

Secretary Root's speech in this city is another proof of the way the negro problem is coming to the forefront of our national issues—"parochial" as it is. It was easy for him to show that President Roosevelt has made fewer appointments of negroes to office than did his predecessors, and he might have added that they are far better appointments so far as character goes. But even this will not mollify the South, for, as Mr. Root pointed out, the trouble lies in a change of sentiment among the Southern people, and not in the White House. This change of feeling towards the blacks, if not coincident with the Spanish war, was undoubtedly greatly enhanced by it and by all the loose talk of an outgrown Constitution and of outlived doctrines of the equality of man. We cannot agree with Mr. Root that negro suffrage is a failure. In that aspect his speech will be productive of harm, especially as it follows similar utterances of two Southern Governors. This republic rests upon the foundation of political equality, and it has yet to be shown that it can endure with millions of its male citizens disfranchised solely because of the color of their skins. No suffrage can be a failure which has not had a fair trial.

N. G. Gonzales, the assassinated Columbia editor, having waged relentless warfare in his paper against lawlessness, his admirers in South Carolina now wish to erect a monument to him as a champion of law and order, to express thereby their "silent but lasting protest against the lawlessness in our State." It is a kindly movement, but it would avail little or nothing as a protest. Just now a properly adorned gallows would be the fittest monument in South Carolina to the cause of law and order. Any other monument to that cause, or to Mr. Gonzales as its champion, might well await the law's disposition of the case of his cowardly assassin.

The referendum in Vermont has resulted in a small but sufficient majority for local option and high license. Fifty years of statutory prohibition had so ingrained conventional phrases and ideas about saloon regulation into the average Vermonter, that a victory for home rule and common sense seemed unattainable. Ever since the Legislature passed the act now returned from the people as law, the churches and the press have been vocal with appeals against the compromise with sin and for the protection of the home. It required courage on the part of those who voted "yes" to stand out against this fine but ill-judged enthusiasm, and vote steadily, not for an impracticable law, but for one that can be enforced. The State of Vermont is to be congratulated upon clearing its mind of cant, and coming under a law which lets each community deal with the liquor traffic according to its needs. The result will probably be that the villages will remain "dry," with a quickened public opinion to keep them really dry; and the larger towns "wet." This will mean that the small dives will tend to disappear, and that innkeepers will sell to all comers (paying the community handsomely for the privilege) without the accessories of locked doors, dark passages, and private signals. All this is in the direction of sincerity.

Just what weight in law or morals should be given "preferential claims" against Venezuela, such as the allies now urge, is a question of the very kind to be submitted to the Hague Tribunal. On the one hand, a rude sense of justice would seem to favor the notion that those who have been at great pains and expense to collect their debts, should

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have a priority over those who have simply sat by and waited a general settlement. But, after all, Germany and England did not actually collect their dues. They did not drive the thing home. If they had seized Venezuelan custom houses, or landed a force and captured Caracas, no one could have disputed their right to settle their own claims first. But this ultimate assertion of *force majeure* they stopped short of; and it is a nice point whether, in the circumstances, an already adjusted claim, like that of France, should be made to wait upon the liquidation of dues of which the collection is sought by a kind of aborted violence. The tribunal of The Hague is the precise place to have such a dispute heard and determined; and the decision to refer it there is a happy way out. With all other points adjusted, and the blockade speedily to be raised, the solution of what threatened to be a serious controversy seems now to be fully in hand. That the situation has been handled with great skill and marked restraint and good judgment by the President and Secretary Hay, everybody must concede. As for Minister Bowen, if he has erred at any point from excess of zeal, it must be remembered that he had a most anomalous task, in which it seemed impossible that he should win anything like the success he has scored.

It is clear that the controversy over Minister Bowen's diplomatic manners arises, in good part, from his dual rôle. He is Minister of the United States and, at the same time, plenipotentiary of President Castro. Yet it is purely in the latter capacity that he figures in the Washington negotiation. The trouble is, however, that the representatives of the allies seem to be always thinking of him as American Minister. If he stands up stiffly for his principal in Caracas, as he is bound to do, they at once begin to ask why an agent of the United States should hold such positive language with them. Let them remember that he is, for the nonce, solely the spokesman of Castro. As such they might find for him the historic excuse offered to Frederick the Great. That monarch, to show his spite against the English Government, had sent as envoy to London a notoriously dissolute man, and one day maliciously asked the British Minister in Berlin what the English thought of the Prussian *roué* he had given them. With great presence of mind, Minister Elliott bowed low and said, "Digne représentant de votre Majesté!"

The *Financial Chronicle* publishes the annual estimates of the world's production of gold and silver for the year 1902. That of gold foots up $304,589,862, against $266,559,884 the previous year, The highest yield of any year (that of 1899) was $314,630,233. The remarkable fact is that the world's production is now within $10,000,000 of what it was when the South African yield was at its maximum. In 1899 the output of the latter was $73,227,100. In 1902 it was only $40,000,000. When the Transvaal mines are turning out their usual quantity, the total annual product will probably be $25,000,000 larger than that of last year, unless there should be a falling off in other countries. There has been some decline in Canada, whose production for 1902 was only $19,500,000, against $24,400,000 in 1901 and $27,900,000 in 1900. On the other hand, the output of Australia has increased about $7,000,000, and that of the United States about $2,200,000, as compared with 1901. More remarkable than the world's production of gold, however, is that of silver, which has shown a steady increase in the face of declining prices. The outturn of the year 1891 and of the past four years was as follows:

Year.	Ounces.	Value.
1891	137,965,412	$124,474,000
1899	167,224,243	93,128,460
1900	172,838,873	98,871,840
1901	174,998,573	98,344,640
1902	178,866,084	87,421,880

The significant fact is that the largest production of silver the world has ever known in a single year (1902) took place when the metal was selling at the lowest price ever known.

The story of an injured agent for Gen. Grosvenor's 'Book of the Presidents' published on Friday in the *Evening Post*, explains fully an affair for a time obscured by the evasions and prevarications of the Congressman-author. In brief, this subscription work, whatever may have been Gen. Grosvenor's written contract, was in the nature of a "benefit" for him, and a speculation for his manager, Elder. The suggestion that the author had no pecuniary interest, beyond his contract, in a book subscriptions to which varied from $100 to $1,000 a copy, may be promptly dismissed. It appears also that the letters soliciting subscriptions and bearing a forgery of Gen. Grosvenor's signature, were written, apparently with his consent, on Congressional paper furnished by him. A personal letter from him, written significantly on the paper of the Merchant, Marine, and Fisheries Committee, was addressed to a prominent financier. The evidence is clear that Gen. Grosvenor has traded upon his official position for his private profit. He has associated himself with a begging enterprise conducted by a man formerly convicted of fraudulent use of the United States mails; finally, he has turned and twisted and lied as his literary schemes have been revealed. A very rudimentary sense of honor would compel his resignation from the House of Representatives.

The petition of seventy heads of preparatory schools should do something to shake the Intercollegiate Football Rules Committee out of its present lethargy. These teachers, representing many prominent schools and enjoying unusual facilities for studying the effect of football playing upon their pupils, assert that "the game as at present played is too severe and too dangerous," and express their belief "that it is possible, by modification of the rules, to develop a style of football that will retain the unique and characteristic advantages of the present game without its most serious attendant evils." It is strange, on the face of it, that these schoolteachers, many of whom are themselves old players, should see clearly their way to reform of football, while the old players who make up the Rules Committee either despair of a remedy or acknowledge no need of reform. In the interest of one of our finest sports, were it only properly restricted and made reasonably unhazardous, these legislators, if they lack ideas of their own, should consult with those who have ideas. They cannot afford to drift until the schools and colleges begin to consider the suppression of the game.

While the news from the near East is of a distinctly serious cast, it should not be forgotten that considerable deductions must be made from all stories of outrage and massacre. There is no adequate news service in Macedonia and Albania. The English correspondents at the coast towns or even at Vienna send on whatever tidings reach them from the interior and seem credible. Everything is hearsay and frequently at second or third hand. It may be that the conditions are infinitely worse than anything we ever learn of here; it may be, on the contrary, that the chronic small disturbances in northern Turkey come to us magnified threefold. The situation cries for a Schuyler or a MacGahan to report on the facts, and it is encouraging to learn that the London *Daily News*, remembering its honorable achievement before the Turko-Russian war, is planning to get news direct from the scene of the disorder. This to many will seem a striking repetition of the history of twenty-five years ago. But it by no means follows that the parallel will be carried out consistently. In fact, the chief ground for apprehension in the Balkans is that Russia is to-day quite free from the various checks, notably Disraeli's doctrine of Ottoman "integrity," that hampered her before and during the last war. But this freedom of Russia is also a kind of guarantee that no necessary intervention on her part in the Balkans would be likely to serve as the signal for a general European war. The whole outlook to-day is far less perplexing and perilous than it was in 1876-7.

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THE LATEST SILVER PROJECT.

Seeing that only about twenty days remain of the present session, there has been a marked indifference on the part of the Republican members of Congress to the President's request for an international silver conference. What the President asked was "that the Executive be given sufficient powers to lend the support of the United States, in such manner and to such degree as he may deem expedient, to the purposes of the two Governments"—Mexico and China. It has remained for a Democratic Senator from Colorado, after an awkward pause, to take the first step toward carrying the President's wishes into effect. Senator Patterson has moved an amendment to the pending Philippine Currency Bill, in which he proposes that the President be authorized to invite such governments as he may deem proper to join us in a conference to devise and suggest "a plan for adoption by the several governments, by which a fixed commercial exchange relation shall be established and maintained between the silver coin of the silver-standard countries and the gold coin of the gold-standard countries."

In its aims, Senator Patterson's proposal is identical with the declared objects of the Paris monetary conferences of 1878 and 1881. Its scope is not limited, so far as the United States is concerned, to the Philippine Islands. The conference might embrace the whole country in its recommendations if it should so decide. The Brussels conference of 1892 essayed the more modest rôle of "considering what measures, if any, can be taken to increase the use of silver in the currency systems of nations." The latter is presumably the aim of President Roosevelt now. If so, Mr. Patterson has "cut under" him by offering something which the silver producers are more eager to obtain. They want to sell silver to the United States mint, not merely to that of the Philippine Islands. Of course, a Democratic Senator from Colorado could not see a Republican President carrying off his votes without making an effort to hold them. In the recent contest in that State Senator Teller kept his seat by only one majority. Patterson might easily fail at the next election if there were a fresh schism among the silver men. We do not suppose that President Roosevelt had any political aims when he sent in his silver message, but Senator Patterson could not fail to look at its effect upon the Rocky Mountain States.

If any action is to be taken to carry out the new silver project, its advocates should be required to put their ideas into the form of a bill ready for enactment, or of a treaty ready for ratification. It is related of President Lincoln that when Senator Wade, Chairman of the Committee on the Conduct of the War, was urging him for the fortieth time to supersede Gen. McClellan, he asked Wade whom he would choose for the place. "Oh, anybody," said Wade. "Yes," replied Lincoln, "*anybody* will do for you, but I must have *somebody*." Any vague plan for making and keeping silver coins and gold coins equal in value to each other may serve for the envoys of Mexico and China, and eke for President Roosevelt and Senator Patterson, but practical statesmen may fairly insist upon some particular plan. They should decline to set up a new international conference without first seeing the aims of its advocates expressed in the form of an act, or contract, or definite undertaking of some sort. In none of the monetary conferences of the past were the believers in bimetallism willing to put their aims in definite shape, although they were often asked to do so. They always confined themselves to generalities. They were always seeking to get a vote in favor of bimetallism in the abstract, without reference to the means of putting it in successful operation. "Are you in favor of it if it can be done?" they asked, in the conference of 1876; to which Mr. Goschen replied that it was not worth while to give a categorical answer to a question thus hypothetically put.

In the present case the vagueness of the means of procedure is more puzzling than it was in the conferences of bygone days, since the present promoters say that they are not aiming at bimetallism. The gold standard countries are to use gold, and the silver standard countries are to use silver. It is only asked that somebody shall tie the white coins and the yellow ones together with so stout a cord and so tight a knot that they cannot fly apart, however much or frequently the white metal and the yellow one may vary in value. This may be done in a single country, and for itself alone, by limiting the coinage of silver to the needs of retail trade. It cannot be done by concert of action among different countries, and it is not desirable to try, since it ties the hands of all concerned, and deprives them of liberty of action in one of their most vital interests.

In the three weeks remaining of the present session of Congress, no new measure can pass that gives rise to extended debate. Yet it is quite certain that a bill for a new monetary conference would meet formidable opposition, and must run the gauntlet of numerous amendments. It is not certain that any Philippine Currency Bill will be passed, although the need of one establishing the gold standard is very great. To postpone that measure until we can have a "big talk" with Great Britain, France, Mexico, and China, on a theme which even Ah Sin cannot understand, is to keep the Filipinos, for an indefinite time to come, subjected to the miseries of an unstable currency, which are only less intolerable than those of the devastating rinderpest.

ADMITTING NEW STATES.

The long Statehood deadlock in the Senate has seemed in a fair way to be broken by a compromise. This is in line with historical precedent, and, moreover, it must be admitted that there are some distinct advantages in the form of agreement proposed. The Statehood bill, as it passed the House, provided for the admission of three States, Arizona, New Mexico, and Oklahoma, with a provisional arrangement whereby the Indian Territory might later become a part of Oklahoma. The debate in the House was of a perfunctory sort, and when the measure reached the Senate at the close of the first session of the present Congress, a sub-committee of the Committee on Territories was instructed to investigate on the spot the resources and conditions of the regions in question. The inquiry was made during the recess, and the results have been presented to the Senate in a report and in exhaustive addresses by the members of the sub-committee. Briefly stated, the conclusion obviously to be drawn from the data submitted by the sub-committee would be that neither Arizona nor New Mexico is fit for Statehood, while Oklahoma, especially with the Indian Territory added, fulfils all the requirements properly demanded of a new State.

Arizona, after forty years as an organized Territory, has a population of but 122,000, including Indians, of whom there are about 22,000. Her lands are arid, and, except by means of irrigation, are unfit for agriculture. Her resources are almost wholly mineral, and experience has shown that these do not conduce to permanency of population. Nevada, for example, whose resources are also almost wholly mineral, had a population in 1880 of more than 62,000, but this in 1900 had receded to 42,000. Most of these unfavorable conditions are duplicated in New Mexico. This Territory has a larger population, amounting to about 195,000, and so comes just within the rule which has been supposed to apply in recent years—that a candidate for Statehood must have a population as great as the unit for representation in the lower house of Congress, at present 194,000. New Mexico's resources are also chiefly mineral, though her farm products in 1900 were worth $10,155,000, about one-third the value of the farm products of Vermont for the same year. The population of New Mexico, moreover, was found to contain undesirable elements. Estimates of the Mexican or Spanish-speaking portion of the population vary from two-fifths to 60 per cent. of the whole. Thirty-three per cent. of the entire 195,000 are unable to read or write in any language. Interpreters are constantly employed in the courts, testi-

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mony being given in either language, and the juries being generally part Mexican and part American.

Undoubtedly, the case against admission of either of these Territories is exceedingly strong. The argument in favor of Oklahoma and the Indian Territory, on the other hand, is undeniably valid. Oklahoma had in 1900 a population of 398,000 and the Indian Territory of 392,000. Only 52,000 of the latter were Indians. The agricultural lands are abundant. The population which poured into Oklahoma when it was opened thirteen years ago was Anglo-Saxon. There is now taxable property in the Territory assessed at more than $72,000,000. In wealth and population the yearly increases are enormous. Reports of county assessors place the present population at 540,000, an increase of nearly 150,000 since the census of 1900. The value of Oklahoma's farm products in 1900 was $45,447,000, and of the Indian Territory $27,672,000. It appears that it would be an injustice to refuse Statehood to these two Territories. Yet failure to take some action in regard to Arizona and New Mexico at this time doubtless involves failure to admit Oklahoma and the Indian Territory.

Treaty obligations are also involved in the problem. The ninth article of the treaty with Mexico, entered into at the close of the Mexican war, when most of the Territory in question was acquired by the United States, was as follows:

"Article 9. The Mexicans who, in the territories aforesaid, shall not preserve the character of citizens of the Mexican republic, conformably with what is stipulated in the preceding article, shall be incorporated into the Union of the United States, and be admitted at the proper time (to be judged of by the Congress of the United States) to the enjoyment of all the rights of citizens of the United States, 'according to the principles of the Constitution.'"

An attempt has been made to argue, from this and other similar treaty provisions, that there is some immediate obligation resting on Congress to admit these new States. No such obligation exists, but it is clear that ultimate admission is required. The question is, shall Oklahoma and the Indian Territory, which are ready for Statehood, be denied admission in order to postpone for a term of years the admission of two Territories which must come in sooner or later, and which might come in now as a single State, thus reducing by half their representation in the Senate? Perhaps the opportunity to admit them as a single State will not present itself again, yet the advantages of so doing are obvious. Not only would the representation in the Senate of undesirable territory be thus reduced to a minimum, but also the merger would conform to the rule for the admission of large States west of the Mississippi—a rule which when violated has been broken to the disadvantage of the Union. The combined area of the new State would be 235,000 square miles, considerably less than the area of Texas.

THE GENERAL STAFF.

The War Department's bill for the establishment of a General Staff has now passed both houses of Congress, and is therefore certain to become a law within a few days. In many respects this is the greatest achievement of Secretary Root's Cabinet career. It is a very brief bill, comprising only about fifty lines of large type. It involves no extra expenditure of Government funds, and adds not a single new officer to the existing military establishment. Yet it calls for the most radical departure in American military theory since the formation of the Government. If properly carried out, it means the modernization of an army which stood still from the end of the civil war until the Secretaryship of Elihu Root, content to let the military art make progress everywhere else, but not within its own ranks.

Primarily, the General Staff is a simple business provision. It makes possible in army administration the foresight and preparation for the future to be found in every successful business house. As is now recognized even in Congress, the War Department plunged into the war with Spain totally unprepared for its duties. It had neither maps nor plans of campaign, nor accurate information about its own country, much less the enemy's. It did not know whether there were any transports to be had, where they were to be found, or what they would cost. It chose rendezvous for army corps, and learned afterwards that the harbors selected were too shallow for transports. It placed an entire army at the mercy of a single-track railroad. It purchased, and made its plans to purchase, uniforms, food, material of war, underclothing, etc., etc., after the declaration of war. It was cheated and robbed, and men died by scores and hundreds, of neglect and carelessness, in the terrible confusion and chaos which followed.

It is sufficient description of the General Staff to say that if it had existed, and existed efficiently, untainted by politics, in April, 1898, few if any of these shortcomings would have been noted. From now on, the officers detailed to it are to be a bureau of information and a group of military business men planning for the future. Chiefs of staff bureaus are no longer to work earnestly and untiringly, each along his own lines, in utter ignorance of the efforts of the others. The three generals, four colonels, six lieutenant-colonels, twelve majors, and twenty captains or lieutenants to compose the General Staff, are to form a military clearing house, in order that all the staff departments shall work harmoniously and intelligently to the common end. They are to be the directing brain of the army, and, while directing, are to acquire a schooling nowhere else obtainable, in order to fit them for high commands in the field. They are to be the *corps d'élite* of the service, and will furnish a goal for the legitimate ambition of every worthy officer. These officers are to serve four years with the General Staff, and then at least two years with their respective branches of the service before again being eligible.

Exactly how efficient this body will become will depend upon the War Department. As Gen. W. H. Carter has well expressed it, "Any system which allows the officers of a General Staff to degenerate solely into bureau officers will cause them to forfeit the respect of the line of the army; above all else, the personnel of a General Staff corps should be selected with reference to ability, and without any suspicion of favoritism." If these principles are adhered to, the army will, for the first time in its history, have an effective stimulus to professional study and achievement in time of peace. In connection with the War College and the professional schools, it should insure a body of officers so well trained as to be worthy of comparison with those of foreign services. It is only regrettable that Congress did not compose the General Staff of extra officers at slight additional cost. The detachment of so many officers from their regiments will injure the efficiency of these organizations.

An equally radical departure in the bill is the provision abolishing, after the retirement of Gen. Miles in August next, the position of commanding general and substituting therefor a "chief of staff." Friction between the military head and the civilian head of the army has existed from the very first. Every commanding general has encountered obstacles which have finally reduced the position as held by Gen. Miles to one of innocuous dignity—and to nothing else. The chief of staff will stand between the Secretary of War and the army at large. If he does not happen to be the Lieutenant-General, the latter will still have an honorable command assigned to him. The chief of staff, the bill says, "shall have supervision of all troops of the line and of the Adjutant-General's, Inspector-General's, Judge-Advocate's, Quartermaster's, Subsistence, Medical, Pay, and Ordnance Departments, the Corps of Engineers, and the Signal Corps, and shall perform such other military duties, not otherwise assigned by law, as may be assigned to him by the President." He is to be latter's executive along purely military lines. Like every other officer of the General Staff, the chief is to be detailed for four years, "unless sooner relieved." This provision insures a President's obtaining a loyal chief in harmony with his views, and should make impossible the present scandalous relations between the military head and his civilian superiors. In this respect, too, the bill is epoch-making.

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TRUST COMPANIES AND THE CLEARING HOUSE.

The New York Clearing House is composed of sixty-two banks, which meet on every business day to exchange the checks and drafts they hold against each other, and to pay or receive the cash balances arising thereunder. There are also eighty financial institutions which use the facilities of the Clearing House through banks that are members of it. Thus a non-member makes an arrangement with a member to receive all checks drawn upon it, and pay them at the Clearing House in the same way as its own. When such an arrangement is made, the banks send to the Clearing House for settlement the checks drawn on the non-member which they have received in the course of business the previous day. Checks drawn on a non-member which has no such clearing facilities must be collected at the non-member's counter. The trust companies usually deposit the bulk of their money in banks, on which they draw checks (except for very small sums) to pay the checks drawn by their depositors upon themselves. Hence, in the case of a non-clearing trust company, there is one day intervening between the receipt of such checks and the collection of them in cash, and a consequent loss of interest. But the banks make no discrimination between trust companies which have clearing facilities and those which have not. They receive as deposits, without discount, all checks drawn on non-members. Some of the oldest and largest trust companies in the city have no clearing facilities, and do not desire any.

Trust companies have been multiplying rapidly of late. The common saying is that "it is a cold day when a new one is not formed in New York." Although, in the eye of the law, they are all alike, and in the eye of the public they are doing the same kind of business, there are wide differences between them in practice. Some of them, but these are now the small minority, do a strictly trust business. They take only such deposits as are payable at a fixed time. They do not pay checks on demand. They do not compete with the regular banks. These are the old-fashioned companies, but even these are yielding more and more to the pressure and fashion of modern business by receiving deposits payable on demand, buying commercial paper and making advances on securities; in other words, doing a regular banking business. Thus their competition with the banks is becoming more and more a serious matter, especially since they are not required by law to keep any fixed percentage of cash reserve.

National banks, however, are required to keep 25 per cent. of their deposits in legal-tender funds, and State banks (in New York city) 15 per cent. Thus the trust companies are enabled to lend, say, 95 per cent., or even more, of their deposits, while the national banks cannot lend above 75 per cent. of theirs. The former have an advantage of perhaps 20 per cent. in their lending ability. The regular bankers consider this an unfair advantage, and they seek to redress the balance by requiring the trust companies to keep a larger reserve in their own vaults than they have been accustomed to heretofore. Accordingly, a resolution was reported by the Clearing House Committee on Wednesday of last week, to require all trust companies which exercise clearing facilities to keep, in their own vaults, a fixed percentage of reserve, to wit: 5 per cent. of deposits after June 1, 1903; 7½ per cent. after February 1, 1904; and 10 to 15 per cent. (as may be determined by the Clearing House Committee) after June 1, 1904.

This looks like a very simple proposition, but it is really a very complicated one. In the first place, it applies only to the trust companies which use the facilities of the Clearing House. There are twenty-seven such companies in Greater New York. There are twenty-two which have no connection with the Clearing House, direct or indirect. The latter have about two-fifths of the capital held by trust companies in the city. If the proposed resolution is adopted by the Clearing House, a new disparity will be introduced. The non-clearing companies will have the same kind of advantage over the clearing members that they all have over the banks. The non-clearing members might, however, think it best to make common cause with their fellows against the banks and form a Clearing House of their own. This plan is already talked of. But there are other possible consequences. The trust companies keep their money on deposit in the Clearing House banks. These deposits are worth having. Ordinary trust company deposits in the State of New York amount to $744,000,000, besides $120,000,000 classed as trust or time deposits. No bank will willingly put itself out of reach of such a golden stream. The trust companies have still another weapon if they care to use it. They can retaliate by collecting checks and drafts on country banks without discount, as was formerly the practice of the Clearing House banks. At least one of the new trust companies is now doing so.

What the Clearing House banks hope to accomplish is to secure the passage of the bill now pending in the New York Legislature requiring the trust companies to keep the same percentage of reserve as the State banks do. This, too, looks like a very simple proposition, and is in accord with American practice and habits of thought. Yet it is also subject to complications. There is no reason for keeping a fixed reserve for time deposits. The reason for any reserve whatever is to meet calls for money payable on demand. It would be proper, therefore, to eliminate time deposits from the legal reserve requirement. But such a proposition is beset with the practical difficulty of distinguishing between time deposits and other deposits in any case where the institution is not perfectly fair in its construction of the law. What should be the limit of a time deposit, and what should be the evidence of the existence of a time deposit? Trust companies are multiplying in the adjoining States and all the States. It is hardly possible to pass a law at Albany which will not have the effect either to draw trust funds to this State, or to send them to a more hospitable climate.

We have sought in this article merely to point out the difficulties of the problem, not to decide between different interests and different authorities. We observe in conclusion, that America is the only country, so far as we know, where the law attempts to prescribe what cash reserve any financial institution shall keep to protect depositors.

"TAINTED" GIFTS.

Should the gifts of bad men be refused by the authorities of colleges and similar institutions? This question has been interestingly debated, in the *Outlook* and *Independent*, by Professor Bascom of Williams, President Pritchett of the Boston Institute of Technology, and by the editors of these periodicals. The immediate occasion of the discussion was a remark made at Philadelphia by the English economist, John A. Hobson. He said:

> "The fact that they [millionaires] give us great gifts should not keep us from tracing the origins of their wealth. . . . Is it safe to take money so gained [*i. e.*, by unrighteous methods] and spend it for public purposes at the wish of the millionaire?"

Professor Bascom has taken throughout the most radical ground. He believes that to receive wealth which the recipient knows to be ill-gotten makes him an accomplice of the evil of its acquisition. He points out, also, that even unconditional gifts do insidiously affect the policy of the universities which have received them, and he maintains that the college which receives gifts presumptively tainted—and here he does not hesitate to name Mr. John D. Rockefeller—owes to itself and the public, while it accepts his money, an absolute condemnation of the unrighteous donor and all his works.

This thesis Professor Bascom defends with such eloquence and so fine an indignation that we differ from his opinion with great reluctance. But it will be seen that his theory that there is a large class of wealthy men who are to be abhorred, *dona ferentes*, would, if accepted, lead to widespread confusion. If a college should refuse to accept their surplus wealth, an honest man should decline to buy their products, a Christian should scorn to receive their pay,

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a conscientious investor should see that no securities tainted by their management ever enter his strong box. In fine, no taint attaches to the beneficence of a wealthy ill-doer which does not infect all his other activities. The college president who accepts an endowment from him is technically no more *particeps criminis* than the clerk who draws his pay from him.

But, actually, the college president has the added responsibility that comes with greater influence. He is unquestionably bound to reject a gift for any reason incompatible with the ideals of the institution under his charge. That he is under any obligations "to trace to its origins" the wealth which supplies the gift, we do not believe. A college president cannot exercise detective functions nor establish a cure of souls. He is, on the contrary, bound to receive all gifts which do not make himself and his college sponsor for wrongdoing. For the taint is always in the giver, not in the gift. Gifts are, generally speaking, desirable, but certain givers are intolerable. President Pritchett, in the *Outlook*, puts the matter concretely:

"Suppose that William M. Tweed, in the heyday of his career, had come to the authorities of Columbia, and said: 'Here is a million dollars to found a school of political science which is to bear my name.' Columbia could not have accepted that gift and maintained its moral leadership."

Notorious and unrepentant ill-doing, then, seems to be the true criterion. We presume that no university president today would accept an Addicks, Croker, Platt, or Quay foundation in political science, or after their death allow a chair to bear the name of any of them. Here acceptance would be compounding with political corruption.

The case would be more difficult if Devery should come secretly, barefooted and in his shirt, to the head of a theological school, and, after explaining that it was impossible to restore his wealth to the proper owners, should offer, in all penitence and unconditionally, an endowment in Christian morals. Again, the case would be by no means clear if Mr. Croker should live to ninety and outgrow his notorious connection with corrupt sources of revenue. A high-minded president would still be obliged to refuse to attach the name of Croker in any fashion to his college, while he might well be willing to let Mr. Croker's money lie anonymously in the college chest. And assuredly no one would refuse a gift made in good faith by the descendants of any of these gentlemen. The taint, again, is not in the wealth, but in the giver.

Certain general principles come out of discussion which tends to lose itself in casuistry. In the great number of mixed cases it is a privilege for a man of dubious wealth to give to an honorable institution, and it is a concession to receive his gift. It is, however, the tendency of certain college presidents to descend from this position of self-respect and toady to possible donors which arouses Professor Bascom's indignation. Very bitterly and justly he scores this weakness of the churches and small colleges—"to be discontented with honest poverty, and to be willing to have cast over them, at any price, one little corner of the skirt of wealth."

It is well to emphasize this danger of a new simony which affects not the church but our great institutions of learning. Yet it is doubtful if we shall find a better rule of practice than President Pritchett's suggestion that flagrant ill-fame of the donor or discreditable conditions of the proposed benefaction alone render a gift unworthy of acceptance. Developing these principles, the *Outlook* has said very sensibly:

"If conditions are attached to the gift inconsistent with its free use in the sense to which it is nominally dedicated, it is to be promptly declined. . . . It is not their [the beneficiaries'] function to trace proffered endowments to their source, nor to put the donor on trial, still less to condemn him on public report without a hearing. They will not raise the ethical standards in the community, nor in the institution under their charge, by imputing unworthy motives to a benefaction apparently worthy in itself, nor by attaching on suspicion dishonorable conditions to a gift which is in its terms free from conditions."

ARTS AND CRAFTS IN LONDON.

LONDON, January 17, 1903.

After a little more than three years' rest, the Arts and Crafts Society has opened its seventh exhibition at the New Gallery. Most societies hold annual or even semi-annual exhibitions, so that such unusual restraint naturally leads us to expect more of these special arts and craftsmen when they do show than of most artists. Besides, the Society is supposed to be representative of all that is most distinguished and accomplished in modern English decoration. It endeavors to set the standard at home; its work has only too often been accepted as a model abroad.

I might as well admit at once that, taking these facts into consideration, the new exhibition is a distinct disappointment. Instead of any advance, any progress since the last show, there are on all sides signs of exhaustion, if not of deterioration. It seems to me that William Morris is more and more missed as the years go on. His work was not beyond criticism, his influence not beyond reproach; but there was vigor and vitality in everything he did, and a genuine love of beauty, however misdirected at times was the expression he found for it. Now, one is conscious of a prevailing feebleness and a deliberate eccentricity to conceal it. To this effect, the arrangement of the collection adds not a little. Two of the rooms have the look of a big bazaar or fancy fair, which not even the plain white background—borrowed from Mr. Whistler—in one can quite do away with. There could scarcely be a more heterogeneous jumble of things—huge cartoons and tiny miniatures, woven hangings and silver ware, book-bindings and big pieces of furniture, illustrations and enamels, jewellery and embroideries, all mixed up without rhyme or reason, so that the eye must be focussed anew at every step, and fatigue and bewilderment are the inevitable result. In the third large room, craftsmen, or groups of craftsmen, have been given each a little recess or shop apart in which to expose their strength, or, more frequently the case, their weakness. Here, the President, Mr. Walter Crane, Mr. Lewis Day, Mr. George Walton, Mr. Ashbee, Mr. Voysey, among others, have brought together, each in the space provided for him, the wall papers, crétonnes, furniture, or whatever it may be for which he is more or less directly responsible; and all that remains is for each artist, after the manner popular in the Indian or Japanese village, to be on view in his own little shop hard at work, showing how well he understands, or does not understand, the technique of the crafts he represents.

But arrangement does not count for everything when, after having philosophically made the best of it, one comes to examine the work in detail. It is discouraging to note that some of the late follies of Continental craftsmen are being re-echoed, if weakly, by English designers and decorators. It is the more curious that this should be so because there cannot be much doubt that from England came the first inspiration of those distressing curves and swirls and angular lines that have, of recent years, distracted us on any and every thing that presents a surface to be decorated—on the shop-front of the enterprising tradesman, from Amsterdam to Madrid, as on the covers of the books we read and the cups from which we drink our tea. But the unfortunate fashion began in a mild, unsuspecting way in this country, and—for lack of enterprise, perhaps—was never pushed to the mad extravagance to which Belgians and Germans and Austrians have carried it. Now, however, just as on the Continent the fashion is almost played out, English craftsmen seem on the point of giving it new life, or semblance of life, by taking not themselves but their own imitators as masters. The worst of it is that the President goes to particular pains in the "Forewords"—why will not plain Preface answer his purpose?—to the catalogue, to record the fact that England, or more particularly his Society, is, on the Continent, given the credit for having inaugurated this "new art." He quotes M. Folcka, Swedish representative on the international jury at Turin last summer, who, impressed by the "new ideal of style and beauty of lines and colors which distinguishes our epoch, and which we call—not without pride—the new art," was amiable enough to discover the origin of this ideal in England and the movement, begun "more than thirty years ago, with which are inseparably joined the names of William Morris, of Edward Burne-Jones, and Walter Crane." It is enough to make William Morris turn in his grave. That Mr. Crane did not order his Society into sackcloth and ashes, that he did not hide his head with shame at the thought of the responsibility thus so largely thrust upon him, but that, on the contrary, he seems extremely pleased, is one of the most dispiriting features of all. And I have referred thus at length to his preface because I think it helps to explain the character of the show.

Indeed, nothing short of the deliberate acceptance of a "new ideal" would account

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for the furniture. It is hard to understand how English craftsmen, with the fine models left by Chippendale, Sheraton, the Adams, should have gone so hopelessly astray. That they have so little to show in this section is the one redeeming point. For, in the modern cabinet and sideboard, table and chair, bureau and writing-desk, as one sees them here, there is as little respect for structural form as for elegance of detail. Even when the simplicity of materials and general design requires an appropriate severity in the decoration, there is a tendency to over-elaboration. If the ornament were beautiful there would be less reason for criticism: one would make the best of it, as one does of so much of the old Rococo flamboyancy. But it is cheap in finish; there are no longer the beautiful mouldings that should be to furniture what they are to architecture. This year, I notice a growing use of a strip of inlay in a sort of checker-board pattern that, I am told, can be had at so much a foot; while fussy curves and eccentric lines are stuck on where they are not only ugly but useless. Or, where there is an attempt at greater refinement in materials and workmanship, as in an inlaid cabinet sent by Morris & Co., the pattern of the inlay is almost forced or tortured into prominence until you can see nothing else. I say this with the more reluctance because the cabinet is one of the best made and finished pieces of furniture in the exhibition. But I turned with positive relief to a plain, rush-bottomed oak armchair, absolutely without ornament, unpretending, and yet so uncompromising in its plainness that it has at least the beauty of consistency—of being exactly what it sets out to be. I might also except a music cabinet and writing cabinet by Mr. Henry Wilson, who has the good sense not to sacrifice art to fashion, and who realizes that austerity may have its value.

The best that can be said of the designs for carpets is that hardly any are shown. Mr. Crane does what he can with the rose, the lily, and the carnation as motives, but it is curious how tentative and immature the work of a man who has devoted all his professional life to design can sometimes look. Mr. Crane, practically only yesterday, returned from his triumph on the Continent, chiefly at Budapest and Turin. It is doubtful whether his name has ever been so well and so widely known. And yet, the more one sees of his work, the readier one is to believe that it is to his toy books he really owes and will owe his reputation. These he did extremely well, but the toy-book method seems to have pursued him through all the numerous crafts he has practised, and to many it is far from appropriate. His wall-papers I should like to see covering the wall of a room and not shown as samples, with a number of others, by the firm who produce them. The crétonnes and most of the textiles, though sent by different individuals and firms, are, as is unavoidable, exhibited in much the same way, and it is difficult to judge what their decorative merit may be when applied to the end for which they are intended. Mr. Day's work of this kind is always marked by knowledge, skill, and judgment; he knows how to fill his space so that the pattern gives the necessary color and variety to the surface without ever asserting itself; but he keeps to his well-tried conventions. His designs, in effect anyway, differ but little one year from those of the year before.

Greatest ingenuity seems, since the last exhibition, to have been devoted to embroidery. Panels and counterpanes, friezes and portières hang on the walls, cases are full of smaller and more delicate examples. One might almost fancy the hanging committee, in despair over an empty space of wall, going out into the highways and byways in search of any stray bits of embroidery to cover it. Good workmanship is common enough—most women, who put themselves to it, can master the technique of needlework; but good designs are rarer. One exhibitor has actually copied with her needle Fra Lippo's "Annunciation" in the National Gallery, a second has embroidered in four big panels life-size figures to illustrate a mystic allegory, and many others have aimed at "pictures," less ambitious in scale, but still apparently meant to rival, in silks and crewels, the variety and resources of the painter's palette. Certainly, it is the last sort of needlework one would expect to find in the exhibition founded by William Morris and based upon the principles of decorative art upheld by him. It seemed only in keeping that I did not come across anything by Miss May Morris, though it may be she has work hidden away somewhere. The catalogue supplied to me was anything but a complete guide.

Plenty of space is devoted to cartoons in black-and-white for stained glass, but none to the glass itself, so that in this section one pronounces judgment with hesitation. Mr. Selwyn Image, Mr. Anning Bell, Mr. Louis Davis, Mr. Christopher Whall, all have designs that look promising enough, though Mr. Davis and Mr. Whall treat their scriptural and other subjects with an irritating suggestion of condescension, of adapting their conceptions to childish powers of appreciation. The story of the Nativity and similar themes seem, in their decorative version, addressed to children, and I must confess this is an affectation which, to me, becomes as tedious as the opposite affectation of appealing only to the esoteric and morbid few. There is much more virility in a big cartoon, also in black-and-white, for a modelled frieze by Mr. Wilson.

Other black-and-white work there is in plenty—illustrations, book-plates, woodcuts, and so on. But in no section have the members of the Society allowed their prejudices so completely to get the better of them. They refuse to recognize that an illustration can decorate a page unless it is worked out according to formulas approved at Kelmscott and adopted by Mr. Walter Crane. When good men make use of these formulas, the results may be impressive or pleasing, as in the designs of Mr. Strang, Mr. Anning Bell, Mr. Guthrie, Mr. Eve. But in the hands of the second and third-rate draughtsman, they degenerate into empty mannerisms, tedious beyond endurance, Nowhere is contemporary illustration so inefficiently represented as at the Arts and Crafts. In examples of printing, the restrictions are as absurd, though less disastrous, since the few printers admitted really can and do turn out excellent work. The Chiswick is an old-established press that maintains its high standard; the Doves Press, and the Vale (really the Ballantyne Press) have produced beautiful books when they have managed to forget their affectations, and I am glad to see that the worst faults of the Kelmscott Press are not so fondly cherished as of yore by the admirers of Morris. The Vale Press makes some concession to the prevailing mode by exhibiting books decorated in color, but the color is used in simple flat tints, and with a reserve that might give a lesson to those American printers who are now rioting in the three (or other)- color processes. It is a pity the same reserve is not shown in the decoration of the page. One, at least, of the books from this Press, Bacon's essay on Gardens, decorated by Mr. Pissarro, is open at a page in which the few lines of text are all but swallowed up in the profuseness of ornament. Technical excellence, not a common virtue among English craftsmen, also distinguishes some of the book-bindings by Mr. Douglas Cockerell, Mr. Cobden Saunderson, and Miss MacColl; and the simpler the decorative scheme, the less attempt there is to express the unutterable in symbolic curves and significant curlicues, the more workmanlike, the more really beautiful they are. I should point to a binding for a large edition of the Bible by Mr. Douglas Cockerell, severe in its absolute simplicity, as the most successful of them all; that is, from the point of view of the artist.

More space, probably, than ever before is given to metal work and jewellery. Copper and brass are apt to be hopelessly abused, and twisted or elongated or curved into "new art" novelties, when they are not brutalized by a clumsy scheme of ornament. But ocasionally an exhibitor, like Mr. Rathbone, who in large designs seems to lose all sense of grace and appropriateness, does remember that there can be beauty in simplicity of form and line when he designs such small articles as candlesticks and jugs. The Guild of Handicraft, who are as affected as anybody when they choose—or more so—have their lucid moments of simplicity, and some of their silver dishes and chalices are graceful enough in shape, with all the charm of plain surfaces, to need no further ornament. But Mr. Alexander Fisher is the best silversmith of them all. Sometimes, as in a very fine crucifix he is now exhibiting, he combines silver with enamel so that the harmonious scheme of color satisfies the eye as completely as the grace and dignity of design. His work of this kind is so distinguished and shows such a right feeling for the limitations as well as the possibilities of his materials, that I can forgive him the less for his zealous but mistaken excursions in enamel, when, as in a triptych illustrating the text, "Behold, I stand at the door and knock," he lets technical experiment run away with him until, in striving for the color that probably no one has ever got in enamels before, he loses sight of the fact that it is not worth getting at all.

Something of this same sense of and seeking for color is revealed in the glass in conjunction with metal, as shown by Messrs. Powell, and also in the jewellery. Precious stones and precious metals and enamels are, now and then, used as a painter uses his paints to produce a harmony, with exquisite results, though the English jeweller in his technique has still much to learn from the French craftsman. Besides, as jewellery is the fashionable craft of the moment, many seem to have gone in for it simply to make the most of the fashion while it lasts. There is a good deal that is deplorably crude, and it is matter of regret

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that Mr. Henry Wilson, of whom so many exhibitors are but feeble and far-away imitators, sends nothing. Again, though a few years back the object of the arts and craftsman in his jewellery was all to imitate the barbaric limitations of primitive ornament, taking peasant work for his model, now he aims at elaboration and effects quite beyond the province of his medium. But, after all, it is here you have the root of the evil felt in almost all the decorative arts of to-day. The craftsman seems to be without definite aims or principles. He has heard a great deal about the virtue of individuality, and his entire energy is spent in cultivating it rather than his art. Now it leads him back to primitive masters who have long since been surpassed; now it brings him to the feet of "art" promoters launching a new fashion In neither case does he ever forget himself for his work, and thus we have self-conscious eccentricity instead of the genuine love or serious study of the principle of design without which there never has been and never can be great decoration.

N. N.

Correspondence.

BOOKS AS TOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Francis Darwin, in the 'Life and Letters of Charles Darwin,' states that his father had no respect for books as books. He left them unbound and falling to pieces; he did not scruple to cut a heavy volume in two for convenience of holding; in short, he regarded books simply as tools to work with. And as for pamphlets, "he would tear out, for the sake of saving room, all the pages except the one that interested him."

This treatment of unbound literature is not uncommon among modern scholars, and the urgency of a pressing need is not unlikely to subject costly books to the same unceremonious ordeal. Darwin's system of the tabulation of data has been followed by not a few investigators, who realize the treacheries of memory, and foresee the inevitable future waste of time and effectiveness which the non-systematic student invites. A system for the speedy and voluminous filing of information has become a *sine qua non* of modern scientific scholarship.

Some investigators, able to value their time above the extra expense, attain their ends by elaborate transcripts, done by hired amanuenses, and thus avoid Darwin's "bibliophagy," from which the lover of books recoils. But such assistance is beyond the means of most scholars, and the only alternatives are laborious copying with their own hands, or some adaptation of Darwin's practice. The former alternative plunges one into an abyss of hackwork, and few there be who do not shirk it. Following Darwin's plan, others resort to the purchase of two copies of the most important books of reference, and ruthlessly cut one or both, so as to be able to paste the excerpts upon their uniform note-cards and file them away. This method certainly avoids the untidiness of the shelves at Down, but it involves no small expense and an unnecessary waste of bookmakers' labor.

The problem is solved, however, in the case of some publications, notably the 'Advanced Sheets of the U. S. Consular Reports,' which are a boon to the note-collector. These are printed upon one side only of a thin, but durable sheet, and so lend themselves readily to cutting and pasting, a single copy being all that is necessary. Again, one is sometimes so fortunate as to get a galley or page proof of a review article, and thus is enabled to dodge a deal of uncongenial toil. The great saving in such cases of time, labor, and expense to the scholar raises the query, Could not publishers afford to undertake an advance subscription edition, at a moderate price, of the text of new and important scientific works and articles, to be issued in page proof, unbound, uncut—in fact, simply accurately and clearly printed? The advantages to the investigator of such a system are self-evident.

From the publishers' standpoint, likewise, it appears that there would be something to gain. Few scholars are willing to have notes alone, and no library; nothing can, after all, replace the volume on the shelf. Such an edition would be likely to affect sales but slightly, while it would advertise the book to a considerable extent and in the right quarters. Again, the presentation-copies account would be considerably reduced, together with postage and express-age. And even though the undertaking realized a slight loss at first, the prestige of the firm or bureau which should take it up would be of no small importance.

Of the net business value of such an enterprise, of course, no layman can presume to judge; but the demand for some such system, already faintly outlined here and there by the appearance of tentative efforts to meet it, is sure to grow in the future, if science is to advance.

Albert G. Keller.

Yale University, January 30, 1903.

Notes.

Mr. Thomas Willing Balch, 1412 Spruce Street, Philadelphia, will shortly have ready a monograph on the Alaskan Frontier, containing 26 maps, some very rare, and some "absolutely conclusive evidence against Canada and England." Mr. Balch has journeyed very extensively for his material.

A diligent historian, Mr. Julius F. Sachse, is preparing to issue by subscription a fifth volume in a related series, entitled 'Justus Falckner, Mystic and Scholar, Devout Pietist in Germany, Hermit on the Wissahickon, Missionary on the Hudson: A Bicentennial Memorial.' The edition will be limited to 500 copies, royal 8vo, and will be published by the author at No. 4428 Pine Street, Philadelphia.

Doubleday, Page & Co.'s spring announcements include 'The Life of James Madison,' by Gaillard Hunt, the first volume in the "Biographical History of the United States"; 'The Story of My Life,' by Helen Keller; 'Essays on Education,' by President Eliot of Harvard; 'The Nature-Study Idea,' by Prof. L. H. Bailey; 'The Moon,' by Prof. William H. Pickering; 'Macbeth,' the first volume in Professor Liddell's "Elizabethan Shakspere"; 'Principles of Home Decoration,' by Mrs. Candace Wheeler; 'How to Keep Well,' by Dr. Floyd M. Crandall; 'How to Make Money: Eighty Practical Suggestions to Untrained Women,' by Katharine Newbold Birdsall; 'The Wind in the Rose-Bush,' stories of the supernatural, by Mary E. Wilkins; and 'The Conquering of Kate,' by J. P. Mowbray.

Macmillan promises for next month 'Athletics and Outdoor Sports by Women,' by numerous hands, introduced by a general introduction by Miss Lucille Eaton Hill, Director of Physical Training at Wellesley College.

'Horses Nine: Stories of Harness and Saddle,' by Sewell Ford, and 'The Meaning of Pictures,' by John C. Van Dyke, are in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

'Written in Florence,' a collection of the last poems of Hugh McCulloch, grandson and namesake of the former Secretary of the Treasury, is announced by Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

The New Amsterdam Book Co. have nearly ready a reprint of Daniel Williams Harmon's 'Journal of Voyages and Travels in the Interior of North America"; an unabridged reprint of Freeborough and Ranken's 'Chess Openings'; likewise of 'Joe Miller's Jestbook'; and 'The Life and Voyages of Americus Vespuccius,' by C. Edwards Lester.

A new and enlarged edition (the tenth) of Dr. Griffis's 'The Mikado's Empire' is to come from the Harpers.

The Chicago University Press will issue 'The Poems of Anne Countess of Winchelsea,' edited by Myra Reynolds.

The Bowen-Merrill Co. of Indianapolis has changed its style to the Bobbs-Merrill Co., in accordance with its present composition.

John Woolman's Diary for the pocket and a quarter of a dollar presents an irresistible combination. Such is the latest addition to Macmillan's "Pocket American and English Classics." There are a few notes at the end.

The Dent-Macmillan Thackeray makes a new volume of that author's 'English Humorists' and 'Four Georges,' separated by a New York charity lecture on "Charity and Humor." Mr. Charles E. Brock supplies some fitting illustrations and embellishments, and Mr. Walter Jerrold, as usual, provides the preface. This editor is unlucky enough to correct a long overlooked error in a footnote on Steele, and to let pass on the opposite page of his preface a mutilated line from Boileau, where "réjoin" stands for "réjoui."

The delightful Newnes-Scribner "Caxton Series," in limp blue-and-gold covers and with etched frontispiece and title-page, besides other illustrations, arrives at Herrick's 'Hesperides,' in two volumes suitable for hand and pocket or satchel. It has an index of first lines, but no other apparatus. Another issue in the same series is Lodge's 'Rosalynde,' equally handy and ornamental.

Mr. John Lane brings up his tiny reserves with the 'Love Poems of W. S. Blunt' ("Lover's Library"), framed in violet and printed in green; and with Milton's 'Lycidas'. ("Flowers of Parnassus," xvii.), whose illustrations, by Gertrude Brodie, are decorative and in keeping with the spirit of the poem.

By reprinting Gov. Cadwallader Colden's 'History of the Five Indian Nations' the New Amsterdam Book Company has made accessible a book of some scarcity and

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CARNEGIE BRANCH

value. There is a new introduction by Mr. Robert Waite, which, strangely enough, contains no bibliographical information whatever, not even a suggestion that the History had ever been in type before. This leads us to wonder whether the publishers are aware that they have served up merely the London reprint of 1755, with all its imperfections, instead of the very rare and interesting original (New York: William Bradford, 1727).

In 'The Legends of the Iroquois,' by William W. Canfield (A. Wessels Co.), we have a number of tales, mostly of Iroquois origin, but frequently containing a strong admixture of Algonquin material, and showing the influence of European contact as well. In his lack of the critical faculty the compiler occasionally suggests the late Henry R. Schoolcraft, author of voluminous and irrelevant writings on the same subject. Thus, it is remarked that "the traditions of the Iroquois herein contained are known positively to be two hundred years old, and are confidently believed to be the stories told by the red men thousands of years ago." Such, in the form here presented, several of them certainly are not; yet, when rightly classed, the book which Mr. Canfield's patient researches have produced is of real interest and value. It contains some very ancient stories, a few simple and unaltered, others recognizable in spite of recent embellishments; and the compiler, by faithful and sympathetic endeavor, has presented his material in a form attractive both to the specialist and to him who reads for pleasure. The notes contained in an appendix are often ingenious and suggestive, and might have been made more accurate and complete had the author been familiar with the writings of Horatio Hale and Lewis H. Morgan.

Mr. Charles Moore, whose papers in the *Century* on the "Improvement of Washington City" we noticed a year ago, has edited for the Government Printing-Office a volume on the 'Improvement of the Park System of the District of Columbia.' It contains reports of the Senate Committee, of which Mr. Moore is clerk, and also of the Park Commission, consisting of Messrs. Daniel H. Burnham, Charles F. McKim, Augustus Saint-Gaudens, and Frederick Law Olmsted, jr. This latter report occupies the bulk of the volume, and is illustrated by scores of full-page plates and many larger views, showing the proposed treatment of various parts of the city *in extenso*. Many of the plates represent parks, fountains, etc., in various other cities, American and European. Appendices deal with such subjects as Public Bathing Places, Anacostia Park, Rock Creek Valley, list of drawings, designs, and models collected for the use of the Commission and now on exhibition in the Library of Congress, and list of lands devoted to public use. There are also a number of large maps. It will be seen at once that the volume is of great importance to persons interested in civic improvement. It is designated as Senate Report No. 166, Fifty-seventh Congress, First Session, or it may be called for by its serial number in the Congressional Series, which is 4,258.

'Henry Grattan,' an essay by Alfred E. Zimmern (Oxford: B. H. Blackwell), has merit beyond its bulk. It will impress many readers as the most important contribution to the understanding of the life and policy of a great Irishman that has appeared since Mr. Lecky's essay on 'The Leaders of Public Opinion in Ireland,' which was first published anonymously forty years ago. If Mr. Lecky then was partially responsible for the rise in an educated circle of home-rule principles, it is to be hoped that Mr. Zimmern's essay will now help towards an enduring settlement between Great Britain and Ireland. Unbiassed truth is not always welcome to either party in a quarrel, and there is something of the bitterness of truth in these pages. The author, though not sparing what he considers the weaknesses and limitations of Grattan's powers and genius, does full credit to their greatness and splendor—especially to his limpid honesty and his patriotism. Upon the world's stage he may not have been great; he was so upon the stage of his country. The work is mainly a review of the political relations of the British Islands as influenced by Grattan's life and teachings. An elaborate review of it would tend more to a political dissertation than to a consideration of Grattan's life. The style is clear and interesting. As the future of Ireland most depends upon the exercise by Irishmen of their own good sense, to them especially we would commend the work before us.

Samuel Smith ("Sammy," as some of the less reverent members of the House of Commons call him), M. P. for Flintshire, is one of the most conscientious and philanthropic members of the British Parliament. In 'My Life-Work,' lately published by Hodder & Stoughton, London, a closely printed volume of over 600 pages, he gives to the world a record of his life, and his opinions upon all imaginable subjects, from bimetallism and home rule to the descent of man and Bible inspiration, and tells how from a Scottish farmer boy he has risen to be a wealthy Liverpool merchant and for long years the representative of a Scottish shire. His portrait faces the title-page; and photogravures are given of his wife and son (whose deaths have left him alone in the world), and of many of the places he has visited in his repeated wanderings over the globe. The simplicity of the man, and the spirit earnest for good that shines through the pages, disarm criticism of the book from a literary point of view.

Munich is the Mecca of palæontologists, and Prof. Karl von Zittel has done more than any living man, through his comprehensive work, 'Handbuch der Palaeontologie,' published between 1881 and 1885, to bring palæontology within the reach of students in all parts of the world. This work has been translated into every language, except English. In 1895 the same author issued his 'Grundzüge der Palaeontologie,' a work condensed from the four volumes of the 'Handbuch' to a single volume of nearly a thousand pages. Into this volume is crowded an epitome of the whole fossil record of the world from the dawn of life to the advent of man, a period of millions of years. It is richly illustrated from the rare collections in Munich, and from other parts of the world. Dr. Charles R. Eastman, of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy of Harvard, has rendered a decided service in translating the latter work ('Text-book of Palæontology'), revising it with the assistance of a number of American and English palæontologists, and bringing it up to date. The first part of the translation appeared in 1896 (Macmillan), and covered the invertebrates. The present, second part covers the older vertebrates, fishes, amphibians, reptiles, and birds. The third part, yet to appear, will cover the mammals. The whole work is admirably done, and constitutes the best treatise in our language on this entire branch of science. The section on the fishes, by Dr. A. Smith Woodward, of the British Museum, a leading authority, is naturally the part in which the most original work appears. The systematic arrangement of the groups is rather conservative, as it was not the intention of the author to depart widely from the lines laid down by Von Zittel, this having been one of the features most criticised in Park I. The volume is admirably printed and illustrated, and will find its way into the hands of all American and European students of this subject.

The appearance of the second volume of the Catalogue of Greek Manuscripts in the Italian Libraries, from the pen of the indefatigable E. Martini, who, in 1893, issued the first volume devoted to the smaller collections of these manuscripts, is all the more gratifying because it contains the description of the treasures found in Vallicelliana in Rome, which, including the manuscripts of Leo Allatius, embrace 221 numbers. Many of these are late productions, and their contents are of a theological character. The secular specimens are particularly rich in grammatical literature of the Byzantine period, including in its oldest portions two copies of the so-called Lexicon of Cyril. Not a few of these documents, after the manner of those of the fourteenth, fifteenth, and, sixteenth centuries, are filled with extracts from various writers. The author of this work announces one still more important, namely, Catalogue of the Greek Codices of the Ambrosian Library in Milan, which he has had in preparation for several years in conjunction with his friend Bassi. The collection includes some 2,500 numbers, and is especially rich in patristic and Byzantine literature. The zeal evinced in recent years in the work of cataloguing the Greek manuscripts of Italy, especially by Vitelli and Martini, awakens the hope that the Marciana in Venice, the Laurentiana in Florence, and especially the Vaticana, recently augmented and enriched by the Barberini collection, will also soon be made accessible to scholars by satisfactory catalogues.

The great Muret-Sanders Encyclopædic Dictionary of the German and English Languages, no doubt the most exhaustive dictionary of these two languages extant, has not only been completed in the unabridged edition, but a "School and Hand Edition," in two volumes, has also been published. The English-German part contains 845 three-column pages, quarto size, and the German-English 889. The former is the work of B. Klatt, and the latter of H. Baumann, author of an excellent collection of 'Londonisms' in a separate small volume. The new abridgment of Muret-Sanders has evidently been very carefully done; if anything, it contains too much and not too little. Both editions are especially rich in difficult and rare words, expressions, and definitions. The reader rarely consults them in vain. The publishers are the Langen-

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scheidt house, of Hamburg. Each volume of the school edition costs 15 marks.

The Messrs. Scribner's *Lamp* is merely an old acquaintance, the *Book Buyer*, under a new name. If the first volume of the new series may serve as a basis for generalization, the *Lamp* is likely to be more hospitable to longish essays than its predecessor was. Otherwise, as an editorial note advises us, this is not a new magazine, but a development of an old. Most interesting among the articles is, perhaps, Elizabeth Luther Cary's "John Adams and Mary Wollstonecraft" — strange running mates even in a casual essay. John Adams in his old age read 'The History of the French Revolution,' by Mary Wollstonecraft (his copy is now in the Boston Public Library), and enriched it with his notes. Perhaps one should rather say his objurgations, for John Adams was little in sympathy with the vivacious apologist of the Revolution.

The *Literary World*, Boston, founded in 1870, has passed into the hands of L. C. Page & Co., and under the editorial direction of Mr. Bliss Carman.

Of decided interest to scholars is the first number of the *Journal of Comparative Literature*, which has just come to hand. This new quarterly is edited by Professor Woodberry of Columbia, assisted by his colleague, Dr. Spingarn, and by Prof. J. B. Fletcher of Harvard. The present number contains the editor's explanation of the meaning of Comparative Literature, the first instalment of a study of "Huguenot Thought in England" by Professor Bastide, some "Unpublished Letters of an English Humanist," John Phrea (who studied at Ferrara about the middle of the fifteenth century), edited by Dr. Spingarn. "Molière en Italie," by Professor Toldo of Turin, is the last of the longer articles. Departments of notes and reviews complete the roll. The international and learned nature of the publication is indicated by the use indifferently of English, French, and Italian in the articles, while the absence of Germany is undoubtedly fortuitous, and of no political import. McClure, Phillips & Co. publish the magazine, and give a beautiful impression in bold-faced type on creamy paper.

A new Italian review, *La Critica*, has just appeared at Naples, under the editorship of Signor Benedetto Croce, whose 'History of Æsthetics' was reviewed recently in these columns. The new venture is devoted to the advancement of general culture in Italy, and to the synthetic statement of modern Italian ideals. A brilliant study of Carducci by the editor opens the first number, and is followed by a series of trenchant reviews of recent publications, both Italian and foreign, in the fields of literature, philosophy, and history.

Two additional sheets of the New Jersey State Atlas on the enlarged scale of two inches to the mile have just been put forth by the State Geological Survey at Trenton. The one embraces the tract from Trenton (inclusive) to Bordentown and eastward; the other shows Atlantic City, and the adjacent coast and ocean. They are named for the capital and the watering-place respectively, and, like the original inch-to-the-mile series, are to be had of the Survey for twenty-five cents each. Superficially considered, they lack the interest of more elevated regions in the same State, but geologically and economically they are of no little importance.

"Small service is true service," says the poet, and Mr. José Sirvent "(American citizen, 1921 Vermont Avenue, Washington, D. C.)" reminds an ungrateful republic of his, viz., in drawing up "12 Rules to Divide Words in Spanish," which "forever" ensures accuracy in the Spanish printing of our Government Printing-Office, where the rules have been adopted with thanksgiving. Wherefore, "the author now presents his petition to the end that the Congress of the United States may see fit to grant him some suitable compensation." There were, however, brave men before Agamemnon. The Government Printing-Office's neglect of an easily accessible guide in this matter, viz., the rules given in Professor Knapp's twenty-year-old Spanish Grammar, and reprinted by permission in Mr. De Vinne's 'Correct Composition' (1901), hardly justifies Mr. Sirvent's petition—all the more because his rules are incomplete, as any one may see who compares the two.

—Thomas A. Janvier begins in the February *Harper's* an attempt to extricate the Dutch settlers of Manhattan from the web of misconceptions woven about them by the subtle art of Washington Irving. In general the charge against Irving is that over the bare facts, which it is admitted that he collected with surprising accuracy, "he has cast everywhere the glamour of a belittling farcical romance." And more particularly he has painted a set of sleepy, tobacco-loving loiterers in place of a hard-headed, hard-hitting, ever strenuous band of adventurers. When Mr. Janvier succeeds in rescuing them from Irving, it is odds that some other defender will appear in their behalf against Mr. Janvier himself, for he dubs them a rough lot, who "did not come here for their health"; ready to cheat the Indians at all times, and one another on due occasion. Snarling litigators they were among themselves, consistently evading the revenue laws of the colony, and contemptuously breaking any other law which at any time got in their way. But at the present day it may be that the saving grace of strenuosity will cover even such a multitude of sins. Professor Woodberry writes of the "Literary Age of Boston," enumerating its six greatest names in relative rank as Emerson, Longfellow, Hawthorne, Holmes, Whittier, and Lowell. Many will welcome his strong defence of Longfellow against current depreciation, but perhaps a larger number will resent what seems an undue disparagement of Lowell. To say that Lowell "now seems essentially a man of letters of high endowments, having the accomplishment of verse with his many other rich and varied gifts, and no more than that," and that "his prose is of a transitory nature and steadily grows less interesting," is hardly satisfactory. As between Holmes and Whittier, some may be surprised to read that Whittier had vastly the greater range, but the assertion will bear the test of investigation. Studied in the light of a real knowledge of Whittier, the common belief that a hobby inevitably narrows a man must be admitted to have exceptions.

—In the February *Atlantic* President Hadley begins a broad study of "Academic Freedom in Theory and Practice." On the one hand, we have in every age a set of institutions with the permanence of which the safety of the State and the citizen seems to be bound up; on the other hand, the scholarly investigator, filled with the conviction that he has unearthed new truth the propagation of which is essential to further progress. Position and training fit trustees, donors, and the conservative forces of society in general to appreciate the one side of this antithesis, the teacher to appreciate the other. The problem, then, is to soften this antithesis, and so to order our activities as to secure the advantages of the discovery and propagation of new truth without any dangerous shock to existing institutions. Mr. J. T. Trowbridge carries the story of his life through the fifteen months spent in New York city, ending in August, 1848, the period of first encounters with editors and publishers in his efforts to secure a living by his pen. Under the heading of "The Literary Pilgrimage," Rollin Lynde Hartt gives a somewhat amusing account of the woes brought upon his head by his recent efforts to "see life steadily and see it whole" in Iowa and other Western States. But perhaps the most interesting article of the number is a short study of Libin, the untrained Yiddish writer who has recently come into prominence by his realistic sketches of the submerged East Side life, of which his own life forms a part. Here we have realism due to no oppressive theory, but to an unsophisticated outburst of reality itself. The question remains whether the product is to be classified under belles-lettres or sociology. In writing briefly of the 'Cambridge Modern History,' Prof. Ephraim Emerton contends that the new science of history can never find its true response in the world until it discovers its own form of artistic expression. As literature is its only medium, we are to look forward to a new era of artistic historical composition, new in the sense that it must be adjusted to a scientific method not in vogue when the artistic historical writing of the past was achieved.

—The Variorum edition of Edward FitzGerald's writings (the letters excepted) is not quite completed before a reissue (also in seven volumes) of everything that his literary executor has put forth is begun by Macmillan. That is to say, we shall have all that was contained in Mr. Aldis Wright's three-volume edition of 1889, now out of print; the subsequent Eversley edition (in two volumes) of the letters alone, augmented; the volume of letters to Fanny Kemble; and the recent volume of 'More Letters.' All the correspondence will now be arranged in chronological sequence. Such is the final monument, not a stone added except in the way of correction or spare annotation. Thus, FitzGerald's Spanish studies are carried back to 1850 rather than 1853, as formerly; and the first two stanzas of his lines "To a Lady Singing" (letter to Allen, December 7, 1832) have been recovered. On the other hand, in the new second volume, in connection with that wonderfully feeling tribute to Major Moor, the footnote (as in the 1889 edition) quotes a related passage from another letter which meanwhile has been printed entire in the Eversley edition, and here reappears only five pages off. This is an editorial oversight, but serves to indicate that Mr. Wright was originally possessed of more than he chose (perhaps from considerations of bulk)

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to give out; or perhaps he was feeling his market. The two volumes before us, richly bound in red silk, surpass the three of 1889 typographically only in the largeness of the print of the main text. In other respects we find the earlier typographic scheme the more elegant, and no less legible in the notes. But these liberal pages are good for old eyes, for a show of reverence, and for reading aloud, not privately, but to a sympathetic company. We cannot believe they will ever stale from reperusal, exciting such unfailing interest in the writer's personality, and bearing such enduring lessons in taste and criticism, in sentiment, in English epistolary style, such reflex portraiture of the correspondents addressed. In other fields than literature, FitzGerald's rare excursions show the sane mind of the genuine humorist. "I am no politician," he writes to Allen (October 31, 1835) of the new Poor Laws; "but I fear that no political measure will ever adjust matters well between rich and poor." And again, in Sepoy times (August 15, 1857): "As to public matters, I scarcely meddle with them, and don't know what to think of India, except that it is very terrible. I always think a Nation with great Estates is like a Man with them:—more trouble than Profit; I would only have a *Competence* for my Country as for myself." It is hard to refrain from further excerpts from these letters, whose periodicity suggests the tidal lives of limpets and such creatures on FitzGerald's own Suffolk shore.

—Mr. Joseph McDonough, Albany, has had reprinted (*verbatim et literatim*) for himself five hundred copies of a work which more than forty years ago showed the following title-page: 'Early Voyages Up and Down the Mississippi by Cavelier, St. Cosme, Le Sueur, Gravier, and Grignas. With an introduction, notes, and an index, by John Gilmary Shea.' McDonough has thus honored Shea with a monument which would have pleased him better than could any statue. He has paid a fitting tribute to a man who, through the third quarter of the last century, was one of the few scholars who most promoted the publication of what are now called source-books of history. Such sources he detected, begged, borrowed, bought, translated, and, through the art preservative, not only saved when ready to perish, but made popular, influential, and prized up to their real value. In 1861 his 'Early Voyages' could not have been printed in more than a hundred copies. The subscribers for it were seventy-two, five of them for such large paper copies, 7x9 inches, as McDonough has now reproduced a hundredfold. Shea was still a voice crying in the wilderness. His volume, which he was first to translate from French—largely from manuscripts—was throughout from chroniclers either forgotten or newly first printed. But it furnished at first hand La Salle's last attempt, as described by his brother, to force a passage from Texas to the Mississippi, and the last letter that hero is known to have written. Its main contents are, however, voyages about 1700 up and down the great river, one of them of sixty-five days, with jottings day by day. These were path-findings, but epoch-making, as they show the first French permanent occupation, just forestalling both Spaniards and English, with stations from Wisconsin to Louisiana; and one voyage was as late as 1728. Faith, fur, and false fancies concerning copper and blue clay enkindled strange inspirations. Shea speaks of French, English, and Spanish flags floating on the mighty river and disappearing within a century; and, going to press in 1861, adds: "Two now divide it; let us hope that the altered flag may soon resume its original form," etc. Shea's volume abounds in explanatory footnotes. There are thirty relating to Le Sueur's voyage up the river to where Mankato now stands and (meaning "blue clay") marks the spot where that adventurer dug an earth more precious, as he trusted, than porcelain. The chapter on Le Sueur, borrowed from Shea, has just been republished in the Collections of the Wisconsin State Historical Society (vol. xvi., pp. 177-194). The Wisconsin editor has added twenty notes such as Shea himself would have added had recent finds been made earlier. Our only regret is that McDonough's reprint was not made perfect by notelets on similar lines.

—'Insurance and Crime,' by Alexander Colin Campbell (Putnams), is "a consideration of the effects upon society of the abuses of insurance, together with certain historical instances of such abuses." While inconclusive as to remedies, this volume of 400 pages has some value as a record of crime and fraud in connection with insurance. As insurance grows, so crime in connection with it grows. The Pitezel-Holmes story (p. 243) is as extraordinary a narrative of crime as any to be found in history, and shows that the astuteness of the criminal is ever on the alert to keep pace with the developments of the business on which he preys. But this is no more true of insurance than of any other department of human activity. The Humbert frauds, for instance, show that crime keeps pace with law and banking. The author seems himself to look for little improvement from legislation, and would rely mainly on public opinion to cut off openings to crime in connection with insurance. On one specific point he desires to focus public attention—"the practice, which may be said to be universal in insurance, of employing canvassers to bring in business, and paying those canvassers by a commission on the premiums they bring in." A Royal Commission in England has, it seems, taken up the commission system in connection with child insurance, and it is, as the author says, "obvious to every man" that the agent paid by commission "has a constant interest in favor of getting much business as against getting good business."

—Each fresh work from M. Jacques Reich's etching-needle shows a steady advance in technique, while he continues to cultivate the large scale. We have just received from him a striking copy of the Stuart Washington deposited by the Boston Athenæum in the Museum of Fine Arts of that city, and a copy, of equal size, of Rembrandt Peale's portrait of Jefferson, in the possession of the New York Historical Society. In the case of the Washington, the unfinished canvas is shown as in the original, so that the lower third of the print is like a foam out of which the severe head arises against a dark background. Jefferson, with fur-trimmed coat and flowing hair, is completely etched, and presents his philosophic aspect. The eye and the whole muscular play of the features reveal a more curious, flexible, and interesting mind than his great compeer's. Both these etchings must be pronounced adequate, and neither is superfluous, in spite of the innumerable reproductions of the Stuart painting, and Mr. Reich and the public are to be congratulated on these notable additions to the best section of our national portrait gallery. Mr. Reich's address is 2 West 14th Street, New York.

—The Archæological Society of Athens has just published its Report (Πρακτικά) for 1901, giving summary accounts of the work of that body, to which is intrusted the care of the monuments and museums of Greece. The income of the Society is derived from a lottery, for which it has the monopoly in the kingdom, and this income is to be increased, since the Parliament has voted to allow the sale of a larger number of tickets. A considerable part of the work of the Society is the preservation of the monuments of antiquity. Thus, for five years it has been engaged in strengthening the ruins of the Parthenon, and now it is about to undertake more extensive repairs for the Erechtheum. It has built several museums, and is enlarging that at Corinth for the protection of objects found in the American excavations there. The heaps of rubbish which have disfigured the slopes of the citadel of Mycenæ since Schliemann's excavations a score of years ago have been removed, at least in great part. At Dimini and Sesklo in Thessaly have been discovered the only citadels of the stone age yet found in Greece proper, with implements of stone and bone, and images of stone and clay. A large Roman building of the early Christian period has been uncovered at Megalopolis. The expenditures during the year for antiquities for the museums were very trifling, only about $120. A new law not only forbids the exportation of any objects which the Society desires, but declares such objects to be the property of the Society, awarding to the finder such remuneration as the Society may think proper to give. For the first time in many years, the Society sends young archæologists to study archæological methods in Germany. Greece has no archæologists outside of Athens, and trained students are sadly needed to care for her provincial museums, properly arranging and cataloguing their contents, with due appreciation for the works of antiquity discovered in the district. Thus, while Germany and France, as well as Great Britain and America, are sending young men to Greece for the study of classical archæology, the Greeks are sending their students to German universities. Both courses are wise. German and American students need to study the monuments themselves, and the Greeks will profit greatly by the more scientific methods of German universities.

A RE-ESTIMATE OF CARLYLE'S FRENCH REVOLUTION.

The French Revolution: A History in Three Parts. I. The Bastille; II. The Constitution; III. The Guillotine. By Thomas Carlyle. A new edition by C. R. L. Fletcher, M.A. In three volumes. London: Methuen & Co. 1902.

Sixty-five years ago and more, Carlyle charmed or offended, but in any case as-

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tounded, the world of letters by his 'French Revolution.' The time has come to inquire what is the permanent worth of a book which at any rate purported to be a history?

To this inquiry Mr. Fletcher's admirable edition supplies, for any intelligent reader, something approaching to a final answer. Of the editor's labors we may say here, once and for all, that it is impossible to speak in terms of too high praise. He leaves Carlyle's own words absolutely untouched; he elucidates, in the strict sense of that word, just the points which Carlyle leaves obscure; he affords corrections of his author's actual errors, which are considerable, and supplies to students the means of attaining a knowledge of revolutionary history which is not to be gathered from the writings of Carlyle. Mr. Fletcher, lastly, gives an estimate of Carlyle's rank among historians, which anticipates, we are convinced, the enduring judgment of the world.

"People," he writes, "would be able to be much fairer to Carlyle if his book were called 'Pictures in the French Revolution,' instead of 'The French Revolution: A History.' Nobody can now call it a history, for it is a series of pictures merely, of almost equal literary merit, but of singularly unequal literary importance. . . . Primarily, then, the book is to be regarded as a series of pictures, and in these pictures a few great portraits stand out prominently on the canvas. . . . There are failures in the portrait gallery no doubt—one or two very bad failures, shown to be such by historical investigation since his time; yet, considering the small number of documents and books he can have had at his disposal, and the comparatively small number of even these which he read, it is the strongest proof of his insight that he was able to draw such wonderful portraits of the principal actors."

This passage, which, with regret, we are compelled to curtail, suggests the right point of view from which to regard Carlyle's work. His gift for portraiture was the talent which in 1837 arrested the attention and won the admiration of the public. That the portraits had the exaggeration and the monotony of caricatures, no more told against their effectiveness than the exaggerations or mannerism of Dickens prevented all England from roaring with laughter over the humor of Pickwick. Englishmen did not then possess anything like a readable history of the Revolution. "No great pretence at historical accuracy—not [Carlyle's] forte at any time—could be made in 1837; but it was time that England got some picture of the whole thing, and there was enough material at hand for the broad outlines to be filled in; this task he accomplished, I think, with a master hand."

It must be remembered, too, that in 1837 there prevailed two opposite views of the revolutionary movement, neither of which could satisfy the reason or the sentiment of thoughtful men among the then rising generation. The Tory doctrine (which, at a time when men lived who could well recollect the Reign of Terror, had many adherents), that the French Revolution was nothing better than an outburst of democratic folly and wickedness, was becoming obsolete. The conviction of the Whigs that revolutionary violence had been a transitory and subsidiary feature of a movement which had finally ended in the establishment, under Louis Philippe, of a Constitutional monarchy after the English model, was a comfortable creed, well suited to please men who believed that the Reform Act of 1832 was the greatest of statesmanlike achievements, and had put an end to all that was wrong in English society; but this optimistic faith, while it took no account of the spirit of the Revolution, brought no satisfaction to reformers who imagined, whether rightly or wrongly, that English politics and English society stood in need of fundamental renovation. To such men Carlyle opened a new view of the Revolution: he taught them that it was not so much a political event as a social, or rather a spiritual, reformation. From the beginning to the end of his book he proclaimed that the Revolution had put an end to shams and cant, and had opened the way to a reign of truth which would substitute realities for fictions.

It is, indeed, a singular sign of the change worked by the lapse of more than sixty years that this "gospel," to use an expression of Carlyle's school, which in 1837 formed half the charm of his 'French Revolution,' receives no notice whatever from Mr. Fletcher. But Mr. Fletcher's silence is wise. Carlyle's ethical or religious dogmas have absolutely nothing to do with our judgment on the course of events in France, and his doctrine, which meant so much to men such as Sterling, Kingsley, or Froude, and which certainly had its effect on the minds of thinkers as weighty and serious as Maurice and John Mill, is now, whatever its intrinsic merit, of little interest to the world. Carlyle's eternal truths are as much forgotten as the numerous Constitutions of France, which, though intended to endure forever, have lasted on an average for not more than ten or twelve years. But teaching which is obsolete has often produced immense effects in its own day, and Carlyle's reiterated sermons on such texts as "Light mortals, how ye walk your light life-minuet over bottomless abysses divided from you by a film!" immensely added to the impressiveness of the popularity of his 'French Revolution.' The success, then, of the book was due in the main to three causes—Carlyle's genius as a painter of historical scenes; the new light in which he presented the revolutionary movement; the moral teaching of which history in his hands was made the support and the illustration.

The effect, therefore, produced in 1837 by the appearance of Carlyle's book admits of easy and complete explanation, but some of the very circumstances which contributed to the success of the book must make it very doubtful to a calm critic of 1902 whether it will permanently retain anything like high rank among histories. The truth is that the book reflects the character of its author, and that Carlyle, in his writings and throughout his life, exhibits three traits which are almost incompatible with a successful discharge of the functions of an historian. He was a dramatist; he was a sentimentalist; he was a preacher.

Of his dramatic power, as already pointed out, every page in his 'French Revolution' gives evidence. It is, as Mr. Fletcher rightly insists, a series of pictures; but then it is at bottom nothing else. It is assuredly not, in the ordinary sense of the word, a history. For real knowledge, even of the facts of the revolutionary era, we must go to better informed and to more accurate though to duller writers. Carlyle wrote too soon after the events which he narrated to write with full knowledge, and he did not possess all the information which was accessible in his day. He did not at all thoroughly investigate even the dramatic episodes in the narrating of which he delighted. His blunders about the flight to Varennes are in themselves of no special importance, but they betray a kind of carelessness almost impossible to any man imbued with an instinct for research. But Carlyle's ignorance, where it occurs, is of far less consequence than his lack of historical judgment and perspective.

"No serious historian would now devote an equal number of pages to the critical period, May 5th—July 12th, 1789, and to the actual Bastille days; twenty-five pages to the fête of the Federation, twenty-eight to the mutiny at Nancy, twenty-eight to the flight to Varennes, while giving only thirty to the whole fourteen months from the fall of Robespierre to the end of the Convention, and only one hundred to the whole period of the Terror, in the common acceptance of that word (June, 1793—July, 1794)."

And the exaggerated attention given by Carlyle to striking scenes is due far less to the mere excess of the artistic or dramatic temperament than to a second trait which betrays itself in every line that he wrote; he was essentially a sentimentalist. His admirers will, of course, repudiate this statement, and if by "sentimentalist" be meant a man who was devoted to the kind of sentiment or feeling of which Rousseau's writings afford the classical example, the term would of course be inapplicable to a writer who, throughout his career, poured scorn upon the feebler side of humanitarianism, philanthropy, and that over-cultivation of the tenderer feelings of human nature which is generally associated with the word sentimentality. But if "sentimentality" be used as meaning the tendency to be guided by feeling, by passion, or emotion, of whatever kind, rather than by the dictates of the understanding, then Carlyle assuredly may be ranked among sentimentalists. We may use of him an expression applied many years ago to an author of a very different type by one of the most brilliant of our living writers: "He abhors principles, and adores persons." He is guided, not by any settled, still less by any profound or systematic, view of human progress, but by his sentiment.

In plain truth, Carlyle has shown himself everywhere utterly wanting in anything like a philosophy of history. He hardly realized that it was the duty of an historian to trace effects to their causes, or to show, as was certainly the case, that the Revolution was the result of assignable conditions. His much talked of hero-worship was the expression of the idea that the course of events depended wholly on the action of a few leaders, who stood forth as giants towering above the herd of commonplace men. These heroes were in their turn the representatives, and sometimes (as in the case of Mirabeau and Danton) the strongest representatives, of some spiritual power. But what was the spirit and what was the inspiration which gave sovereign authority to the French Terrorists, who were for the most part a lot of sorry blackguards and cowards; which, on Carlyle's view, enabled untrained volunteers to defeat disciplined armies; which, though the mission of the spirit was to destroy

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shams, gave France into the hands of rulers as incompetent as were the members of the Directory—Carlyle never makes clear to his disciples.

One thing only is certain, namely, that wherever Carlyle discerned (or thought he discerned) might, there he assumed the existence of right, and that he exhibits a strange leniency to the forms of passion or emotion which break though the conventions of every-day life. Hence, in part at any rate, the lack of that calmness which is absolutely essential for the carrying out of profitable research. Hence, too, his studied neglect of matters which are of the utmost importance. From him you will learn nothing of the development of French institutions; you will learn little, if anything, of the opinions of the men who attempted during the Revolutionary era to guide the destinies of France. You may, indeed, get from Carlyle a general impression, the truth of which is very doubtful, that the death of Mirabeau and the execution of Danton were irreparable misfortunes, which deprived France of the heroes who might, had the fates favored, have guided the ship of state into a safe port; but you will not learn from our author how much might have been done by a very little ordinary common sense and ordinary courage, not, indeed, to put an end to the Revolution, but to prevent its excesses. The "whiff of grapeshot" fired by Bonaparte, we learn, put an end to the Revolution, though it really did no such thing. We also learn that, "in old Broglie's time, this whiff of grapeshot was promised, but it could not be given then; could not have profited them." But the last words involve a gratuitous assumption which runs through the whole of Carlyle's book, and which, with Mr. Fletcher, any sensible man may well decline to accept.

Carlyle, again, cannot believe what may now be considered a well-ascertained fact, that the sympathies of the mass of Frenchmen were, throughout the Revolution, not with the Terrorists, but with the Moderates and Constitutionalists, and that it was the cowardice, not the enthusiastic patriotism, of Frenchmen which enabled a minority, consisting mainly of scoundrels, to tyrannize over Paris, and which, combined with the force of historical circumstances, made Paris, while enslaved by the Terrorists, the tyrant of France. Carlyle, on the other hand, definitely teaches that the poorer classes were better off under the Terror than ever before, though in favor of this view he affords no evidence whatever, and, in Mr. Fletcher's judgment, no evidence exists. Our historian further assumes that, in some way or other, the Reign of Terror and all the fuss and fury of the Revolution gave a deathblow to cant, while any observer who with calm eyes notes the present condition of modern Europe, and especially of modern France, will probably come to the conclusion that cruelty, rapine, and murder have not turned out to be the proper means for destroying or even diminishing the power of cant or hypocrisy, and that, though the general movement of which the Revolution in France was merely a part, has conferred some great benefits on mankind, yet the countries which have gained most by such progress as has been made since 1789 are the countries which have most carefully avoided the recklessness, the violence, the faithlessness, and the cowardice which disgraced revolutionary France.

But of Carlyle's specific errors as an historian we have said enough, and we refer students who wish for further information on the subject to Mr. Fletcher's instructive commentary. The real perplexity of a modern critic is to understand how a man of Carlyle's genius and insight came so grossly to misread as he did many of the obvious lessons of the events which he undertook to narrate. The explanation, we take it, lies in a third peculiarity of our author's character. He was, above all things, a preacher—we might almost say he was the last of the great preachers of Scotland. His book is, after all, essentially a set of sermons—very impressive sermons, we admit—on the French Revolution. The work opens with Book I., on the death of Louis XV.; the three chapters devoted to this topic form perhaps the most striking of Carlyle's prophetic utterances, but historically they are a miserable substitute for anything like an account of the conditions which produced the Revolution. The reader is edified, he is not instructed; where he looks for an introduction to the details of an important era, he finds a sermon. As the book begins, so it ends. If the death of Louis XV. is the most impressive of Carlyle's sermons, the last page or so of his last chapter contains the worst specimen we know of his prophetic rodomontade:

"Higher, higher yet, flames the Fire-Sea; crackling with new dislocated timber; hissing with leather and prunella. The metal Images are molten; the marble Images become mortar-lime; the stone Mountains sulkily explode. RESPECTABILITY, with all her collected Gigs inflamed for funeral pyre, wailing, leaves the Earth: not to return save under new Avatar."

The critic of to-day reads the passage of which the sentences cited are a mere fragment, with sheer amazement. How, he asks himself, could an author of genius and humor have written, how could men of sense have read with more or less admiration, such intolerable rant? He remembers, however, that Napoleon and his generation delighted in Ossian, that men are still living who found amusement and some kind of instruction in the writings of Christopher North, and reflects that Carlyle was not the first Scotchman to "write bombast and call it a style"; he bears in mind, too, that the power of a sermon lies in the effect which it produces on those to whom it is addressed, and that the very reason why good sermons become, after the lapse of a short time, so unreadable is, that their merit consists in their suitability for the congregation for whom they were actually preached. It is, indeed, Carlyle's temporary importance as a preacher which mainly threatens his ultimate fame as an historian. Will the artistic merit of scenes in the 'French Revolution' in the long run balance the wearisomeness of obsolete prophetic denunciation?

WEBSTERIANA.

The Letters of Daniel Webster. From Documents owned principally by the New Hampshire Historical Society. Edited by C. H. Van Tyne, Ph.D., Senior Fellow in American History, University of Pennsylvania. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1902. Pages xxii, 769.

This volume significantly supplements the two volumes of Webster's Private Correspondence published, in 1857, by his son Fletcher with too little care and scholarly scrupulousness, and with some filial suppressions—with a politic "systematic omission of unpleasant things that Webster had to say concerning Abolitionists" (for the civil war had already begun in Kansas, and that "North Star" whose dawning Webster had hailed in 1842 as "a strong, conscientious, and *united* opposition to slavery" was now clear in the heavens). The present editor, in a preface well calculated to propitiate the impartial, expressly disclaims any such softening of disreputable traits or language in his copying or in his selections.

His arrangement of his bulky matter will also, we believe, be generally approved. In each division the time order is rarely violated for the sake of grouping what relates to a given topic, but this is all resolvable in the chronological index of letters from and to Webster. More questionable is the line of demarcation by which Webster in sympathy with the opposition to the Missouri Compromise is classed as "The Local Politician," while Webster in support of the Fugitive Slave Bill is "The National Statesman." In the non-political divisions the juxtaposition of letters according to dates has sometimes a bizarre effect. Thus, under "Family Relations" (February 23, 1848), Webster's high-strung daughter Julia deplores the loss of her brother Edward, a victim by disease of the Mexican war: "I rejoice in one thing, that he was free from the blood of any man; that he did not die in battle. He went forth to a wicked and cruel war; and there he has died, like so many before him, without one friend to smooth his dying pillow." This passionate outburst is immediately followed by a note (July 25, 1852) from Webster to his daughter-in-law: "Green Harbor is not well supplied with Poultry, fit to cook to-day. Can you afford us a pair of your Boston Chickens?" Each division has a summary introduction that is helpful. There is no general index to the contents of this correspondence, which, it may be said here, is confessedly not exhaustive as regards Webster's share in it. A large unpublished private collection, which is, we infer, to figure in Little, Brown & Co.'s new edition, was not available for this.

Mr. Van Tyne's footnotes may fairly be called capricious. They might have been greatly extended, but they might also have been curtailed, for not a few are futile, like those on pages 625 and 638, which simply repeat the text. The first note on page 462 is unintelligible. Those on pages 552 and 578 should have repeated the facts, not given references. Such as identify persons mentioned in the correspondence are often singularly dislocated. One on page 600 might have been looked for at page 221. Sometimes the information is inaccurate, as when, on page 372, that is ascribed to his father which is meant for Judge E. R. Hoar; or it is insufficient, as on page 673, when B. F. Butler is simply described as "of New York." Names are occasionally misspelt, as Abbott for Abbot (p. 446), Plummer for Plumer (p. 552); and the same is true of the text—*W.* H. Grinnell for M. (p. 539), Sauger always

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for Sanger (pp. 441, 466, 467, 470), Curtiss for Curtis (p. 470), March for Marsh (p. 461). Among the too numerous typographical errors, like "bandalia" for *Vandalia* (p. 458), one at least betrays the editor's youth. At page 221, when Fletcher Webster, sent to Illinois to look after his father's land speculations, writes that he has "made a short trip among the Tuckers," an older head would have known that he wrote "Suckers," the cant word of the day for Illinoisans. Years, again, would have superseded diligence in research when "Colgent's(?)" is hazarded on page 608 for Colquitt's; and if Solomon U. Downs, Senator from Louisiana in 1850, be now well forgotten even by his contemporaries, Mr. Van Tyne would have got the clew to him had he turned from the rough draft of Webster's 7th of March speech to the finished product, and would not have rested with "Mr. Doroney(?)" (p. 399).

We gladly pass from these not serious shortcomings to some consideration of the matter for which Mr. Van Tyne's industry has made us his debtor. We feel warranted in saying that nothing of importance is revealed to affect the judgment of Webster by friend or foe. We knew that he was urged in vain to attend the anti-abolition meeting in Faneuil Hall on August 21, 1835, which led exactly two months later to the "shamefully good mob" of "gentlemen of property and standing" making a scapegoat of the editor of the *Liberator*. It is something to find here (p. 196) the official invitation that was unheeded, but still unrevealed is his motive for keeping away. Less than three years later (p. 211) he could write privately of cherishing "the friendship and support of those great masses of good men who are interested in the anti-slavery cause"; but was he in 1835 anything but politic in not coming out against them? —as when, in 1814, having made a notable speech (excellent reading to-day) on Giles's militia draft bill, he wrote it out, "but, upon the most wise reflection, I have laid it up in the drawer."* In this speech one passage stands out (p. 61), denying any Constitutional authority "to take children from their parents, and parents from their children, and compel them to fight the battles of any war in which the folly or the wickedness of Government may engage it." In 1846 (p. 327) Webster outlines "guarded" resolutions for a proposed meeting in Boston:

"(1.) That the Country being in actual war, must be defended, and its rights and interest maintained, whatever opinion be sustained of the necessity of its commencement.

"(2.) That so long as the war is waged for National defence, or public rights and interests, and appears not connected with unjustifiable purposes of ambition, or desire of aggrandizement, or acquisition of the Territory of other States, by arms, the Government should be supported in carrying it on and in bringing it to a speedy and successful termination by all truly patriotic men, without distinction of Party."

This anticipation of the McKinley patriotism of 1898 was born of the Presidential ambition so sorely wounded in 1848. On June 16 of that year, with reference to supporting Taylor's nomination, he wrote to his son (p. 368): "I shall endeavor to steer my Boat with discretion." This same quality was manifested in 1850—on the eve of his swallowing the Fugitive Slave Bill whole (and in its first worst state) with the hope of gulping the Southern Whig vote for the Presidency—when he suppressed "the Bill about fugitive slaves which was in my Drawer when I made my Speech" (pp. 415, 417). Another of Mr. Van Tyne's more important finds is the heads of the 7th of March speech. The famous passage reads there (p. 397) as spoken: "I will not reaffirm an Ordinance of Nature or attempt to re-enact the Will of God." Forced by merciless catechising as to what a legislator should enact if not the will of God, he interpolated a question-begging adverb: "I would not take pains *uselessly* to reaffirm an ordinance," etc. Fillmore, the signer, almost shines by comparison with Webster, the defender, of the Fugitive Slave Law. The President could write to his Secretary of State on October 23, 1850 (p. 437): "If there be any provision in it endangering the liberty of those who are free, it should be so modified." Webster on November 16 (p. 443) could discover no "unconstitutional or alarming principles," and was for amendment or repeal only "when real and actual evil arises"—that is, after some free blacks had been kidnapped. He is shown at this time in Boston disgracefully endeavoring in person "to do something to put this business of the attempt to arrest Crafts [Craft or the Crafts, a fugitive pair worth a footnote] in better shape" (p. 440).

The tragedy of Webster's moral decline moving *pari passu* with his physical break-up—the bubble of the Presidency floating before and the spectre stalking behind—is well shown in these pages. As early as 1840, Chancellor Kent, entertaining him in New Jersey, remarked (p. 745) that at fifty-seven he "looks worn and furrowed; his belly becomes protuberant, and his eyes deep in his head. I sympathize with his condition. He has been too free a liver. He ate but little, and drank wine freely." "Lank with age," he appeared at Syracuse in 1851; "whose sluggish legs were somewhat concealed by an overshadowing abdomen, with head downcast, and arms shrivelled and dangling almost helpless by his side," while denouncing disobedience to the Fugitive Slave Law as treason, and still keeping his eye on the Presidency as the fugitive slave on the North Star. In May, 1852, he writes to his son of his canvass (p. 524):

"It seems to me, with great deference, that things are not in a good way. Nobody does anything, on our side. Notwithstanding all the 'good feeling,' results appear always adverse. . . . Really, I am tired of hearing anything upon this subject unless it is a proposition *to do something*. If any [my?] friends wish to meet to consult *for action*, I will meet with them, at any time, if not confined to my home. But I have had enough of cheering prospects and sickening results."

Already among his promoters "it is the universal sentiment—*Let not Mr. Webster make another speech*" (p. 526). Then comes, in June, the "chagrin as profound as my entire nature, and it is, that, after having performed my duty to my Southern brethren, *they had neither the courage or kindness to place me on the record of that convention*"—not one vote for President (p. 531). And the postscript: "I agree that it is time to shake hands with some folks and part, and there are others I am willing to part with without shaking hands" (p. 533); with an inclination (p. 532) "to cross the seas . . . either go abroad or go into obscurity."

Time was, as we have seen, when abolition friendship appeared worth retaining, when there was even a "cause," which was Webster's own. "My own opinion is" (January 29, 1838, p. 211), "that the anti-slavery feeling is growing stronger and stronger every day; and while we must be careful to countenance nothing which violates the Constitution or invalidates the rights of others, it is our policy, in my opinion, most clearly, not to yield the substantial truth for the sake of conciliating those whom we never can conciliate"—*i. e.*, the South. Meantime, his consuming ambition had led him to make the hopeless attempt until (June 3, 1851, p. 476) he had reached the opposite pole: "The policy of placating the Abolitionists has been long practised. It has always failed." And again (August 15, 1852, p. 537): "I did what I could to rescue the country from the consequences of their abominable politics. I disdain to seek the favor of such persons, and have no sympathy with their opinions." He had never had any, apart from calculations of personal advantage.

Early Christianity and Paganism. By H. Donald M. Spence, D.D., Dean of Gloucester. London: Cassell & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

Boissier's 'La Fin du Paganisme,' with its impartial study of the declining days of Paganism, and Dill's 'The Last Century of the Western Empire,' a scholarly treatment of the same period, have established the true historic view of the great conflict between Paganism and Christianity. These books, however, present the historical side pure and simple, and are to be distinguished from the writings of the historians of the Church. In other words, there are two classes of historical works of this period which differ in that one studies events as part of the world's history in their relation to one another, placing before the reader the conditions of society as they are found to exist, while the other regards the events marking the downfall of Paganism and the victory of Christianity as indications of the intervention of the Almighty. To this latter class belongs the work under consideration, a large volume of 560 pages, written by that venerable scholar and authority on church history, Dr. H. Donald M. Spence, Dean of Gloucester. The first page of the introduction clearly defines his position. Beginning with the words of Professor Sanday in his Bampton Lectures, "If ever there was a manifestation of the supernatural, it was in the condition of things out of which arose the New Testament," he declares that "the story of the rise and progress of Christianity during the 280 years which elapsed between the ascension morning in A. D. 33 and the Peace of the Church secured by the famous Edict of Constantine, A. D. 313, may be emphatically looked upon as the story of a period on the whole permeated with the supernatural." Such an attitude is not necessarily inconsistent with scholarly accuracy and impartiality, but there is serious danger lest a Christian historian give undue prominence to events which seem to indicate the intervention of

*This speech, at page 56, is one of Mr. Van Tyne's nuggets; but he is ominously slipshod in quoting from the letter to Ezekiel Webster to which he refers us at page 68. For the phrase we repeat above, he gives: "After the best reflection which I have been able to bestow."

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the supernatural, and rest his argument upon the testimony of Christian writers, treating with scant consideration the testimony of pagan writers.

The history of the Christian Church may be divided into two periods, the first beginning with its foundation, A. D. 33, and continuing to the Edict of Constantine, A. D. 313, and the second from the latter date to the present time. This book considers the former period. The author relies upon the New Testament writings, on the apocryphal epistles such as those of Clement of Rome and Polycarp, on the apology of Aristides and the Shepherd of Hermas, on the writings of Justin Martyr, of Irenæus, Hippolytus, Tertullian, Origen, and Cyprian. Of Pagan writers Dr. Spence draws only from those who speak directly of the Christians, as Tacitus, Pliny, and Suetonius, but laments the little assistance obtained from non-Christian sources. Evidently he has forgotten, at the outset, that the title is 'Early Christianity and Paganism' and not 'Early Christianity,' for, as the introduction indicates, the book contains no study of Paganism or of Pagan society in its relation to Christianity. The first three chapters consider the beginning of Christianity, then identified by the Imperial Government with the Jewish religion; the career of the early Church before Nero and during his reign, when the Emperor shrewdly turned the hatred of the populace upon the Christians; and the reigns of Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian, with their alternate periods of peace and persecution. Chapters IV. and V. are assigned to St. John, Polycarp, and Ignatius of Antioch as the three great leaders of the post-Neronian period. Trajan's policy of repression and the toleration and persecution of Hadrian's reign form the subject of the sixth chapter.

The title of chapter seven is "The Revival of Paganism." By this the author means the change which took place between the beginning of the first century and the close of the second, whereby Paganism, regaining its hold on the minds and hearts of men, retained that hold so tenaciously as to cause serious opposition to the growth of the new faith. Dr. Spence recognizes as phenomena of this revival the restoration of the old worship of Rome, the deification of the emperors, the re-establishing of ancient sacerdotal corporations, the admission of foreign deities, and the philosophic teaching of the later Stoics, such as Seneca and Epictetus. The deification and apotheosis of the emperors are traced to the Roman worship of the household gods combined with the servile spirit of the people of the East, which recognized the worship of the representative of the power that subdued and governed them. The study of sacerdotal corporations is confined to a brief reference to the Arval Brotherhood, and is insignificant compared with the importance of the subject. The explanation of the fact that Christianity formed the only exception to the Roman spirit of toleration and even acceptance of strange religions is entirely inadequate. It is true that Christianity did not permit an adherent to recognize in any sense Jupiter or Mithras or Isis, and that "this stern, rigid refusal of the Christian to share in the common toleration of religions excited the bitter wrath of all the Pagan world and united all the Pagan religions against him," but it was much more than this. Its aim was the destruction of Paganism, on which the Empire rested; it was monotheistic, while Paganism was polytheistic; it condemned the very means by which the Empire had subdued the nations of the world; it declared of no account all that the Roman held most dear, so that if this religion were accepted it meant the absolute overthrow of the foundation principles of the present form of existence.

The next three chapters are assigned to Christianity under the Antonines and the numerous martyrdoms of that and the succeeding period up to the reign of Decius in 249. With the intention of giving some details of the inner life of the Church, an interesting account of the history and art of the Catacombs is interpolated. With a similar purpose much attention is given to the famous disputes on "church discipline" which mark the closing days of the second and the early part of the third century, and affected the entire catholic church. This involves notice of the rivalry of Hippolytus and Callistus, of the life and teachings of Tertullian in Carthage and of Origen at Alexandria. It is curious that, when referring to the writings of Origen, Dr. Spence has not mentioned the famous Hexapla version of the Scriptures. The history of the development of Christianity is resumed in chapter thirteen with the reign of Decius, and carried through the reigns of Diocletian and Constantine to the Edict of Milan, and finally the death of Licinius, in 323, which witnessed "the close of the long-drawn-out struggle between Christianity and Paganism."

In the last two chapters the author turns from the historical narrative to a discussion of several questions which naturally suggest themselves. The remarkable conversion of the masses to Christianity following immediately upon the Edict of Milan is attributed to the deep impression made by the conduct of the sufferers in the great Diocletian persecution. But was this really the cause? Is it not rather to be found in the breaking down of the old effete systems of government and of life which took place in the days of Diocletian and Constantine? In support of his theory, our author, with a habit of partiality, looks to the "writings and records of prominent Christians," *e. g.*, Prudentius and St. Martin. The second question recalls the famous controversy on the capture of Rome that gave rise to St. Augustine's "City of God" and the treatise of Orosius, which employed Christian dialectic to convince people that the capture of Rome was not due to the neglect of ancient rites. Dr. Spence finds the causes in the increase of the slave population, the deterioration of morals, and the increase of taxation. He might have added the general decline in the spirit and courage of the people, and with all fairness have referred to the view of some critics, such as Renan, who believe that the ascetic spirit led to the neglect of civil duties. The book closes with a series of appendices on various subjects of interest to the students of Church history, *e. g.*, The Presence of St. Peter at Rome, Early Heresies of the Church. It is written in a simple, clear style, with impartial recognition of the weaknesses of the early confessors of the faith; but it is not a discussion of Christianity and Paganism.

The forty-three illustrations are, with the exception of those of the Catacombs, of general archæological interest.

Modern Warfare, or How Our Soldiers Fight. By "Ubique." With maps, diagrams, and illustrations. Thomas Nelson & Sons. 1903.

Ubique is the motto of the Engineer Corps, the sappers, of the British army; and this fact, together with the dedication "to my nephew, Lancelot Gordon," would easily put one who is familiar with the army register upon the trail of the author of this volume. In the opening pages, under the guise of a popular account, given in conversational form, of the weapons, training methods, and organization of the several branches of the army, lies in truth a criticism of the deficiencies which were so disastrously manifested in South African operations; and this first part of the book is followed by the ampler second part, which is a spirited history of an imaginary modern second Waterloo, the evident purpose of which is to set forth the new military ideals which are growing in the British War Office, or at least among the brightest under-officers.

The basis of the historical fiction is a supposed renewal of the old feud between France and Germany, some thirty-five years after the Franco-Prussian war, and the sudden invasion of Belgium as the short road to Paris by a German force, in violation of the treaty of the five great European Powers of 1831, guaranteeing the neutrality of Belgian territory; thus necessitating England's interference. While the French armies are drawn to the Rhine frontier by the feint of the larger part of the German army, a second force of Germans, under Prince Lebenfeld, dashes upon the railroad line by way of Namur to Paris. Since the Belgian resistance is feeble and ineffective, England is compelled to hasten to the rescue, and, with Kitchener in general command of the allies, and with French, who showed talent as a cavalry leader in South Africa, assigned to conduct movements in face of the enemy, the advance troops of England are mobilized in eleven days, and set down at the ocean base of operations at Ostend. This rapidity is contrasted with the not discreditable time taken for dispatching troops to South Africa—some fourteen days. Upon the historic grounds south of Brussels, a situation chosen as well for the thoroughness with which its topography has been mapped as because of its dramatic associations, a tremendous struggle is engaged; the British, with their inferior force of 90,000 men as opposed to the nearly 200,000 of Germans, acting upon the defensive. For illustration of the three weeks' battles, there are sixteen carefully drawn maps, showing the many changes of position, from hour to hour, of the combatants, and a large number of diagrams and pictures; so that the narrative is given vivid verisimilitude, both in the engineering details and in the story. It is in respect of the skilful dispositions made by the British to hold their own till reinforcements come and the weakened assailants retreat discomfited, that the critical purpose of the book appears.

For evidence of this we may recall a few of the faults of South African opera-

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tions, as set forth in the most accessible account of those campaigns, Conan Doyle's 'Great Boer War.' These are some of the latter's comments: "Better shooting, better knowledge of cover, are the main desiderata in our infantry. If a man is not a marksman, he should be cast from the army." "The officer will carry a rifle, like his men. Never again should valuable lives be exposed by the fatuous idea of giving them a different dress." "Another prejudice is the reluctance of commanding officers to split up a battery and to act with any unit less than six guns." So Doyle lays emphasis upon the English need of rapid-fire guns and of the heavy howitzers; and upon the conversion of the cavalry, with its antiquated lances and swords, into a mounted infantry armed with magazine rifles. These and more shortcomings of the activities of 1898-1900 are recognized in "Ubique's" description of the elaborate preparation and stubborn defence of the lines from Trou de Bois to Mousty, which are the scenes of the fierce struggle of those July days.

The sappers have scientifically entrenched all the important points of the field during the days when the cavalry and infantry advanced posts were holding off the enemy; and when, in the thick of combat, these fortifications are taken in reverse by the assailants, the infantry, equipped a third of them with a light pickaxe and two-thirds with a light shovel attached to their belts, make effective use of their tools to dig new rifle pits. Attached to each infantry battalion is a Maxim machine-gun, and smokeless powder is employed by all arms. The cavalry acts for the most part as mounted infantry, although several emergencies are depicted in which an old-fashioned cavalry charge is potent to complete the discomfiture of a badly discouraged assaulting column. There are no British assaults in massive columns under raking musketry fire, no random shooting, but always deliberate aim and cool self-possession by the marksman. The artillery has learned to keep its guns under cover when possible, and is powerfully efficient in both the heavy and the rapid-firing cannon. And the engineers have increased their efficiency, of which there was little unfavorable criticism in South Africa, by mounting more of their men for swift movements to hard-pressed positions where their special skill could come into play.

The Romance of My Childhood and Youth. By Mme. Edmond Adam (Juliette Lamber). D. Appleton & Co. 1902.

The first instalment of the autobiography of Mme. Adam introduces the reader to the provincial society of Chauny in Picardy at the beginning of the last century. Her people belonged to the *haute bourgeoisie*, but the behavior of the women of the family was entirely untrammelled by bourgeois conventions. Mme. Adam's great-grandmother chose her husband at the age of fourteen, married him a year later, and died at sixteen, bequeathing her determined spirit to her daughter, Pélagie Raincourt, red-haired and romantic, who, next to the writer herself, is the most interesting figure in the book. At fifteen, Pélagie, who "was in despair at remaining a maid so long," heard that a young doctor named Seron had come to practise in Chauny. "If only he has not had too commonplace an existence," thought Pélagie. Pierre Seron's history proving sufficiently romantic, Pélagie, to crown her eccentricities, rode a barebacked horse to church and was married in her dressing-gown and night-cap. "It is a merry marriage," she said. Seron served as a surgeon with Napoleon's army in Germany, while his wife suffered hardships at Chauny from the invasion of the Allies. Their child, Olympe Seron, inherited her mother's beauty and decision of character without her charm.

"Olympe Lambert," writes her daughter, "was tall, with a handsome figure like her mother's; she had an olive complexion, large velvety and luminous eyes, a charming mouth with small teeth, a delicate nose with pink nostrils, brown hair with ruddy tints in it, handsome arms and hands, and a very small foot. It was impossible to discover a more fascinating creature to look at, and one of less good-humor."

Mme. Seron chose and educated as a husband for her a friendless youth named Jean Louis Lambert (Mme. Adam prefers to spell the name Lamber, but is not consistent), and when her parents consulted Olympe, she replied: "Since you desire it, I will resign myself to it. Where you have tied the goat she will browse." "Ah! that phrase, what a rôle it played in the disputes between the Lambert and Seron families, so frequent in later years" (p. 44). The child of this unpromising marriage was Juliette Adam.

Her grandmother kidnapped the infant and refused to resign her, so that Juliette's childhood was "a long series of dramatic scenes of which I was the cause, and which occasioned my being carried off many times." Mme. Adam's memory goes back to her third birthday, and she gives a lively account of the family drama in which she was destined to figure three or four times a year during her childhood.

"They dragged me first to one side, then to the other; they kissed me with faces wet with tears, they grew very angry with one another, and they almost made me crazy by asking and repeating: 'Don't you want to come with your papa and mamma?' 'Don't you want to stay with your grandfather and grandmother?' . . . On that day, as on many subsequent days, my parents from Blérancourt yielded and grew calm."

Juliette Lambert's father was a "Socialist-Democrat," a disciple of Saint-Just, and an admirer of Louis Blanc. He took advantage of the brief visits to him which her grandmother permitted to convert Juliette to his theories.

"I am the daughter," she says, "of a man who was a sincere sectarian, disinterested even to self-sacrifice, and who dreamed of absolute liberty and absolute equality. Until the terrible year 1870, his mind mastered my own. For an instant, during the days of the Commune, he thought his dreams were about to be realized. Were he alive now, he would be a disciple of Monsieur Brisson, whose political ancestor he was. He would have pursued only one idea: the upsetting of everything."

Mme. Adam's grandfather was a stanch Imperialist; her grandmother was an ardent royalist, and when the child was six years old they all tried in turn to convert her to their own ideas. No wonder that she writes of her father: "Sometimes it seemed to me that he actually probed in my brain as with a red-hot poker, as grandmother, also, too often did. I felt great pain in my temples, and would say: 'I can't listen to you any longer; I feel ill.'"

Juliette Lambert learned Latin from a great aunt, of whose pastoral life and devotion to Virgil she gives a charming account; but it was no doubt to her father's conversations that she owed the best part of her education. Her mother was a morbidly jealous woman, who never cared for her daughter, and regarded with gloomy disdain the infatuation of the other three for the pretty, precocious Juliette. "A pedantic, unbearable child," she would say, "with her intelligence overheated at an age when it should have been set on calm foundations."

When Louis Philippe fled and the Republic was proclaimed, Lambert thought his ideals were on the eve of recognition. He was elected Mayor of Blérancourt.

"Grandmother and I went to see them plant the tree of Liberty, but it displeased us to behold my father attending this ceremony dressed in a blue blouse. His tricolored scarf was tied so as to show the red only. Already my father declared: 'Of the three colors we like only the red.' White seemed to him too Legitimist, and blue too Orleanist. 'Juliette,' asked grandmother in my ear, as we were starting for the ceremony, 'do you like that blouse? Does it not shock your taste?' 'It is partly blue, at any rate, grandmother,' I answered, laughing; 'and, with papa's ideas, it might have been all red!'"

For these republicans of 1848 Mme. Adam expresses the warmest admiration. Their exultation was shortlived, and ended with the election of Napoleon III., when the tree of liberty at Blérancourt was pulled down and Lambert narrowly escaped being exiled as a dangerous revolutionist. He wished to take part in a phalanstery founded to make trial of Fourier's doctrines, to which he was a convert, but his friends persuaded him to stay quietly at Blérancourt.

In 1850, when Juliette was not quite fourteen—

"There came one day to breakfast with my father a very advanced Republican, who was, moreover, a Comtist—a name that my father was obliged to explain to me. Our guest was a lawyer of the Court of Appeals at Paris, but lived at Soissons for the time being. His name was Monsieur Lamessine. . . . He was of the type of an Italian of the South, with very sombre eyes, a pallid complexion, lustrous blue-black curling hair."

A year later he asked for the hand of Juliette. Her grandmother favored the match, while her father wept and implored Juliette not to leave him for a man whom he considered unworthy. For months they quarrelled and raved at each other, and finally Juliette, to escape from so much violence, gave her unwilling consent to the marriage. It proved a most unhappy union, and when Juliette Lamessine's daughter was born, and her husband, having secured her dot, showed himself in his true colors, Juliette's grandmother starved herself to death rather than live to see the misery she had brought on her idolized granddaughter.

"From the day my grandmother left us, my father's one thought was to replace her in my life; . . . he encouraged me to work, and said to me, 'When your married life becomes even more intolerable to you than it is now, your mother and I will dedicate our lives to you. Work, work, and become known. There is no other way by which a woman can gain her liberty than by affirming her personality.' I worked while nursing and bringing up my daughter. Then one day, after some insignificant literary at-

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tempts, revolted at the insults Proudhon had thrown at Daniel Stern and George Sand in his book, I wrote my Anti-Proudhonian ideas, and my real literary life began, with the record of which I shall some day continue these memoirs."

With these words the book ends. It is not easy to escape being tedious in a memoir of one's childhood that runs to four hundred pages. But Mme. Adam is never for a moment dull, and it is doubtful whether the record of her later life will rival in interest this romance of her youth, which ends with her marriage. The translation, which is anonymous, is admirably done, and the book is attractively got up.

Literature and Life. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Brothers.

There have been moments in Mr. Howells's long and brilliant literary career when he has been mistaken (has seemed to mistake himself) for a moralist, philanthropist, reformer, for something other if not better than a literary person—one, that is, with the literary sense so active and efficient that it generally manages to decorate his opinions and lend some sort of grace to his prejudices. In his word of explanation prefixed to 'Literature and Life' he corrects such misconception of his true character, and reveals considerable self-knowledge. "I am never quite sure of life," he says, "unless I find literature in it. Unless the thing seen reveals to me an intrinsic poetry and puts on phrases that clothe it pleasingly to the imagination, I do not much care for it." Such a frank confession should go far to modify any bitterness that kings and queens and aristocracies and millionaires may cherish towards Mr. Howells, and might even bring authors of romantic novels, historical novels, to regard him with a feeling milder than implacable hatred. For he writes about these persons, their privileges and their practices, not primarily because he despises and hates them and wishes to ruin them, but because they attract his imagination and "put on phrases."

For all imaginative writers whose work has a serious intention, who are sometimes apparently acrimonious in controversy, Mr. Howells's plea constitutes a defence. They should never be taken literally; allowance should always be made for the temptation of the phrase. The volume of casual sketches under consideration needs no defence. The subjects, with few exceptions, are not controversial, and these exceptions are of interest chiefly to the literary guild, notoriously irritable, and less than any other class (when opinions and theories are in dispute) willing to make that desirable allowance for the temptation of the phrase. Against occasional denunciation (doubtless spoken in dead earnest) of romantic and neurotic fiction, and the public that reads it, may be set a genial, indeed light, treatment of certain social conditions which Mr. Howells is supposed to abhor. At the "Horse Show" his harshest criticism of the display of wealth and fashion is that it did not come up to his preconceived notion of splendor. "I should not," he says, "have objected to the swells at the Horse Show looking dreary if they had only looked more like swells." When he is among the last of the permanent guests at a European hotel, and is pleased with the respect paid to his quality of permanency, he reflects:

"We shared the regard which all over Europe attaches to establishment, and which sometimes makes us poor Americans wish for a hereditary nobility so that we could all mirror our ancestral value in the deference of our inferiors. Where we should get our inferiors is another thing, but I suppose we could import them for the purpose if the duties were not too great under our tariff."

That sacred subject, the American language, comes in for frivolous if not disrespectful notice. Certain friendly Germans, having parted company with Mr. Howells at Scheveningen, "we were left for some meals to our own American tongue, with a brief interval of that English painter and his wife with whom we spoke our language as nearly like English as we could."

In a collection of essays and short sketches, the personality of an author is often more completely revealed than in a long work. From this volume we get a clear impression of the kind of man Mr. Howells is, and of the things that most attract his imagination and engage his sympathies. These things are recognizable by all Americans as fragments of common experience, and, as we read, we are actually living, struggling with our problems of existence, and taking our leisure and pleasure in the companionship of a wise and kindly guide, philosopher, and friend.

Aristotle's Psychology: A Treatise on the Principle of Life (*De Anima* and *Parva Naturalia*). Translated, with Introduction and Notes, by William Alexander Hammond, Assistant Professor of Ancient and Mediæval Philosophy in Cornell University. Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. lxxxvi. + 339.

We recently called attention to the comparative neglect of Aristotle's works by the classical scholars of America. After those words were in type, we received the volume named above, by one who, though he is primarily a philosopher, has received a classical training, and dedicates his work to Professor Goodwin of Harvard University, one of the two chief leaders of classical study in this country. The translation was undertaken primarily in order to make accessible to English readers Aristotle's tracts on perception, memory, sleep, dreams, and the like—his 'Parva Naturalia'; but to these is prefixed a translation of his main work on the soul, the 'De Anima,' which is nearly as long as all the rest together, and then an Introduction of more than seventy pages, which gives a concise and generally clear statement of Aristotle's psychology, with references to the passages on which the statement is based.

The notes to the translation are brief, and almost never touch on questions of text criticism. In general the editor follows closely the text of Biehl, in the Teubner series. The translation itself is not only more accurate, but also less technical and more readable, than its predecessors, and will be found both intelligible and interesting by many who have shrunk from the perusal of Aristotle's philosophical works. Rarely does the translator modify the author's thought, as he does where Aristotle says boldly that some men never have dreams, and others only in old age, while the translator, more cautiously, says (p. 246): "It has occurred in certain instances that men have never in their lives known themselves to have a dream; in other cases they have observed them when far advanced in years, without having noticed them earlier." If Aristotle was too bold in this, he ought to be allowed to stand by his statement.

Still more rarely does the translator miss the point of a sentence as he does when his author, in speaking of the mantic element in dreams, says that if we dismiss the divine origin of dreams (as we must, for these visit not only the wise and good, but also the worthless), the reason can discern no other cause for their fatidic character, since it transcends our intelligence to discover a cause which should make certain persons foresee what is to happen at the pillars of Hercules—the extreme west—or on the Dnieper—the extreme north. Here the translation reads (p. 248), "For it seems to transcend our power of understanding to discover an explanation of the story that certain persons foretell the future through legends on the pillars of Hercules or on the Borysthenes." As so printed, the sentence interrupts Aristotle's argument.

Such slips are rare, as we have said, and the book as a whole is warmly to be commended. It should be read by all who are interested in the study of psychology.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Academic Honors in Princeton University, 1748-1902. Edited by J. R. Williams. Princeton (N. J.): Published by the University.
Adamson, William. The Life of Joseph Parker. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.75.
Augier, Emile, and Sandeau, Jules. Le Gendre de M. Poirier. Edited by E. C. Roeder. American Book Company. 40 cents.
Avary, Myrta L. A Virginia Girl in the Civil War. D. Appleton & Co.
Baldry, A. L. Sir John Everett Millais. (Bell's Miniature Series of Painters.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Branch, Mary L. B. The Manner of Life of Nancy Hempstead. New London (Conn.): C. J. Viets. 35 cents.
Brown, E. E. The Making of Our Middle Schools. Longmans, Green & Co., $3.
Delavan, jr., E. C. Col. Francis Lovelace and his Plantation on Staten Island. New Brighton (N. Y.): Natural Science Association of Staten Island. 50 cents.
Easton, B. S. The Constructive Development of Group Theory. (Publications of the University of Pennsylvania.) Boston: Ginn & Co. 75 cents.
Edser, Edwin. Light for Students. Macmillan. $1.
Eggleston, G. C. The Master of Warlock. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Fairbanks, H. W. California. Macmillan.
Fredericq, Paul. Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Haereticae Pravitatis Neerlandicae. Ghent: J. Vuylsteke.
Gareke, Emile, and Fells, J. M. Factory Accounts, their Principles and Practice. New ed. London: Crosby, Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $3.
Hansen, George. His Calculations; Baby Roland. San Francisco: Paul Elder and Morgan Shepard. 50c.
Hapgood, Isabel F. A Survey of Russian Literature, with Selections. The Chautauqua Press.
Harvard Psychological Studies. Vol. I. Edited by Hugo Münsterberg. (The Psychological Review Monograph Supplements.) Macmillan.
Herrick, Robert. Hesperides. (The Caxton Series.) 2 volumes. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Holme, Charles. Representative Art of Our Time. Part I. (The "Studio" Library.) John Lane. $1.
Hooper, W. L., and Wells, R. T. Electrical Problems for Engineering Students. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Hope, Graham. All's Well. H. W. Bell.
Hovey, Alvah. Barnas Sears: A Christian Educator, his Making and Work. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Howe, D. W. Civil War Times. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Company.
Hulbert, A. B. Colonel Washington. Marietta (Ohio): Western Reserve University.
Hulbert, A. B. Historic Highways of America, Vol. iii.: Washington's Road; the First Chapter of the Old French War. Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Company.
Hundert Meister der Gegenwart in farbiger Wiedergabe. Parts III. and IV. Leipzig: E. A. Seemann; London: Lemcke & Buechner.
Janet, Paul, and Séailles, Gabriel. A History of the Problems of Philosophy. Translated by Ada Monahan. Edited by Henry Jones. 2 vols. Macmillan. $6.50.
Jay, W. M. L. The King's Garden. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
John Fiske's Historical Writings. 12 vols. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
John Woolman's Journal. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Journal of Political Science, No. XL. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Published for the American Social Science Association.

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Jowett, Benjamin. Select Passages from the Introductions to Plato. Henry Frowde.
Keeler, Charles. San Francisco and Thereabout. San Francisco: The California Promotion Committee.
Kenton, Edna. What Manner of Man. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co. $1.50.
Kingsley, Charles. Westward Ho. 2 volumes. (The Temple Classics for Young People.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Lethaby, W. R. London Before the Conquest. Macmillan. $3.
Lodge, Thomas. The Story of Rosalind. (Caxton Reprints.) London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Love Poems of W. S. Blunt. (The Lover's Library.) John Lane.
Lubbock, A. B. Round the Horn before the Mast. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
McKenzie, F. A. The American Invaders: Their Plans, Tactics, and Progress. H. W. Bell.
Phyfe, W. H. P. Ten Thousand Words Often Mispronounced. New ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Physical Papers of Henry Augustus Rowland. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Pierson, N. G. Principles of Economics. Vol. I. Translated by A. A. Wotzel. Macmillan. 10 shillings.
Ross, H. J. Letters from the East. Edited by Janet Ross. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $5.
Staley, Edgcumbe, Watteau and his School. (Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Stevenson, R. L. Father Damien. H. W. Bell.
Williamson, G. C. Holman Hunt. (Bell Miniature Series of Painters.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Williamson, G. C. Murillo. (Bell's Miniature Series of Painters.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Works of Jane Austen: (1) Sense and Sensibility; (2) Emma; (3) Pride and Prejudice; (4) Northanger Abbey, and Persuasion; and (5) Mansfield Park. Macmillan. 2s. each.
Young, J. B. Our Lord and Master. Eaton & Mains.

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